

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 11, 1881.

The Week.

THE condition of the President continued unchanged till towards the end of last week, when the usual afternoon rise of temperature began to come on earlier in the day than it had previously done, and the feverish symptoms became more aggravated. This was found to be due to the partial closing of the wound in the process of healing, and the consequent retention of pus in its deeper parts. It was therefore decided by the physicians to make a new incision. The operation was performed on Sunday morning, the President being kept under the influence of ether. Since the operation his condition has much improved. He continues to sleep well without the aid of opiates, which is an encouraging sign, and the feverish symptoms have greatly moderated.

Among the things requiring the President's attention on his recovery is the determination of the Bangor collectorship. Though a successor to the present incumbent was appointed, the withholding of his commission was one of Mr. Garfield's last acts before the attempt on his life, and now it is reported that Collector Smith has gone on to Washington, armed with petitions for his retention from nearly all the business men of the port, and two-thirds of the Republican voters. That an officer about to be displaced in the middle of his term should be prompt and vigilant in bringing "influence" to bear to save himself, is natural; but the lying-in-wait, as it were, at the bedside of an invalid President is a repulsive spectacle, quite worthy of the barbarous spoils system which is the cause of it. We observe that the *Boston Journal* is very solicitous to divert the feeling roused by Collector Smith's removal from Secretary Blaine to Senator Hale. It virtually asserts that Mr. Blaine did not advise the proceeding and does not now favor it, and this we are very glad to hear. But then, it leaves the President in the dilemma of yielding to Senatorial prerogative, or of repeating the arbitrary act which cost Collector Merritt his place without warning, without necessity, and before his term had expired. The fact that he reconsidered the matter may be variously interpreted.

There is no doubt that the most significant phase of public feeling over the assault on the President has been manifested at the South. For spontaneity and warmth there has been nothing like it on this side of Mason and Dixon's line; and while the Southern press generally has been in full sympathy with it, in one instance within our knowledge indelicate rather than hostile editorial expressions were summarily rebuked by a visitation *en masse* from the townspeople, who extorted a retraction.

Whether the colored population have had their share in these creditable exhibitions of sensibility and loyalty, we are not informed. There is no reason why they should separate themselves from the whites in such matters, and they are perhaps not yet accustomed to take the initiative in meetings having a constructive political aspect. Still, in South Carolina the *Charleston Courier* has found fault with their apathy, and on Monday, under the lead of their pastors, they came together in that city and resented the imputation and passed appropriate resolutions.

The Virginia Democrats held their convention at Richmond on Thursday, and adopted a platform which represents the strongest position the party feels it safe to assume on the debt question. They say that they "condemn repudiation"; that they "will make every effort to secure a settlement of the public debt" of the State, "with the consent of her creditors, which is consistent with her honor and dictated by justice and sound public policy"; that the several classes of the debt ought to be "unified" in order that "equality, which is equity, may control in the annual payment of the interest, and the ultimate reduction of the principal." They promise that they will use all lawful and constitutional means to secure "a settlement upon the basis of a three per cent. bond," and at the same time that they will not "increase the present rates of taxation." Besides this, they are in favor of "equality of rights and exact justice to all men"; they are opposed to "special privileges," and they favor "freedom of religion," "freedom of the press," "freedom of the person," "trial by juries impartially selected," "elections by the people free from force or fraud," and, above all, "the election for public offices of those who are honest and best fitted to fill them." On this platform Major John W. Daniel, of Lynchburg, has been nominated for Governor. It is alleged of him that he was at one time tinctured with the greenback heresy.

The pledge not to increase the present rate of taxation will probably be regarded by the creditors of the State as an intimation that they must take a three per cent. bond or nothing, and it is no small misfortune for the Democrats in their present position that they should feel obliged to begin their campaign with such a declaration. It gives the platform a hollow look, which even the manly words of Colonel Boccock, who reminded the Convention on taking the chair that "righteousness exalteth a nation, but sin is a reproach to any people," does not wholly remove. The idea that a three per cent. consolidated loan could be floated by the State of Virginia in the open market at par is, of course, preposterous. The United States has not yet been able to do this. Practically what the Democrats say is, that they will give the present creditors of the

State a three per cent. bond instead of their present obligations, or they will give them an indefinite quantity which may turn out to be nothing at all. In other words, they will once more guaranty their principal if the creditors will submit to a reduction of interest. This is simply an ingenious mode of taking advantage of the repudiation sentiment in the State to beat the creditors down, and is not paying the debt, however good "politics" it may be.

Few political occurrences of recent years have been on the whole so singular as the prohibition canvass in North Carolina which ended in Thursday's election. That a Southern State, and one largely interested in the cultivation of the vine and manufacture of spirituous liquors, and above all governed by a Democratic legislative majority, should submit to the people a temperance law of such stringency, was surprising, to begin with. But that when this had been accomplished, and the leading Democrats had either been constrained to support the measure, or, like Governor Vance, to observe neutrality; when the clergy had taken up the cause of prohibition, and manifestly the best elements of society were outspoken on the same side, the result at the polls should be an overwhelming defeat of the measure, is at first sight incomprehensible. The adverse majority amounted to upwards of 40,000, and in scarcely more than one county did the friends of prohibition prevail. Seldom has a legislature either so mistaken or so misrepresented public sentiment, and such was the temporary obliteration of party lines that few were prepared for so decisive a vote on one side or the other.

The truth is, of course, that the Democratic vote could not be counted upon, while the negro vote was sure of being protected to the utmost extent, and was, in fact, fully polled without "intimidation" of any kind. The blacks voted almost solidly against prohibition, in utter disregard of their religious advisers, but in perfect loyalty to the Republican programme. The disagreeable feature of the canvass has been the active part taken by the Federal officeholders in defeating the temperance movement, not, we may be certain, from any objections to the proposed law as crude and impracticable, but from the desire to revive the Republican party by making capital out of a measure essentially Democratic. In other words, the occasion was seized to renew the old alliance between ignorance and poverty and political unscrupulousness, contrary to the best interests of the whole population of North Carolina, for the result is, that a blow has been dealt not only against prohibition but against temperance. The canvass, however, has not been without its bright side. It has emphasized the era of good feeling which has for some time existed in North Carolina, and has brought both races into close and harmonious contact at every

stage. Prohibitory Democrats were glad to secure the services of Republican colored men of weight and respectability to speak beside them on their platforms, and were probably led to think more highly than before of the capacity of these allies. Party lines were only nominally drawn, and were undoubtedly weakened, as the next local political crisis will show. Finally, the minds of the people were forcibly concentrated on their own affairs, and something was gained in political education by the meanest and humblest citizen, and something in toleration by the highest and most prosperous.

In Wall Street the money market was extremely easy at the lowest rates current for a long time, notwithstanding the fact that the New York banks lost nearly one-half their surplus reserve, only \$5,735,225 being left. Foreign exchange, although close to the gold-importing point, did not permit of gold imports, mainly because the "bull speculation" in breadstuffs and provisions has interfered with the export of these commodities, which in turn cut off the supply of commercial bills. The Italian Government has begun drawing gold from London in preparation for the resumption of specie payments, and the probable early movement hither of gold from Europe, therefore, attracts this year more than ordinary attention. The best opinion is that our imports will be less than last year or the year before, but will still be considerable. Speculation at the Stock Exchange continues to be moved by the varying changes in trunk-line railroad affairs and in the physical condition of President Garfield. A conference of the managers of these railroads has been called at Saratoga for the present week; at times it has been asserted that the chances for a settlement of differences and a restoration of rates were good, and at others bad or doubtful. The latter have preponderated, and the result has been a decline in prices of stocks during the week. The second surgical operation on President Garfield helped to depress the stock market on one day.

That the volume of mercantile transactions all over the country is large is shown by the expanding figures of the Clearing-house exchanges. The returns of railroad traffic also point in the same direction. For July the forty-odd railroads which publish their receipts show a gain of 16 per cent. over July, 1880; as rates are lower than then the increase in tonnage must be larger. The crop information has not materially changed previous estimates respecting wheat in this country, and the extremely hot weather of the last week, unfavorable to the corn crop, has pushed up the price of corn. The foreign harvests are reported to have fallen below previous reports in France and England, but to have exceeded expectations in Russia, where, according to cable reports, the yield of wheat will be larger than for twenty years past. The price of silver bullion has advanced during the week; the closing price in London was 51½*d.* against 51¼*d.*

per ounce a week ago. The 412½-grain silver dollar had a bullion value at the close of the week of about 86½ cents.

The Senate Judiciary Committee, which is considering the question of a new bankruptcy law, has received from Mr. D. C. Robbins, the chairman of the Chamber of Commerce Committee, some important suggestions. They are that officers should, as far as possible, be compensated by fixed salaries instead of fees, that the powers of the registers should be increased, that the amount of indebtedness required to authorize voluntary proceedings should be at least \$1,000; that composition settlements should not be allowed to take the discharge of the bankrupt out of the control of the court, without the consent of a majority of the creditors in number and three-fourths in value; and that the discretionary power of the court relating to the granting of discharges should be greatly enlarged. At the next session of Congress the attempt will be renewed to secure an efficient and fair bankruptcy law, and the present business condition of the country is such that it ought to be possible to pass a measure of this kind. Hitherto bankruptcy laws have been passed by Congress in times of commercial depression, under pressure from debtors whose main object has been to wipe out their obligations and start afresh. When this has been accomplished the law has always turned out to be very objectionable, for one reason and another, and has been repealed. In the present prosperous condition of trade, however, when there is no distinct pressure from either debtors or creditors, the main interest in the subject comes from the desire of the mercantile classes to have a permanent and uniform system which the insolvency laws of the various States can never supply, and the only objection to such a system must come from people who have a sinister interest in keeping up the confusion and uncertainty which these laws produce.

It is said to be contemplated in Boston to hold an indignation meeting at Faneuil Hall this week, "to protest against the alleged action of the State Department in regard to Leo Hartmann, the Russian Nihilist." It is not stated what the "alleged action" was, and the only alleged action that we know anything of is not that of the State Department with regard to Hartmann, but of Hartmann himself, and consists in his having suddenly run off to Canada, thus relieving the State Department of the opportunity of taking any kind of action at all. We trust that the subject will be approached calmly in Boston, because, important as the questions brought before it by the presence of Hartmann in the United States would be, the proper position for the Faneuil Hall meeting to take with regard to Hartmann when he is in Canada is an abstract matter, about which there is room for thought and discussion. If it be true that the "alleged action" of the State Department is believed in Boston to have consisted in a statement by the Assistant Secretary that if

the Russian Government demanded the surrender of Hartmann he would be immediately given up, the attention of the meeting will no doubt be directed to the fact that it is now denied that anybody connected with the State Department ever made any such allegation. As the identity of the alleged Hartmann is also in dispute, the whole subject is now in a position which would seem likely to give any discussion of it rather an "academic" than a practical value. However, Secretary Blaine's letter to the counsel of Hartmann in this city, declining to give any intimation what the Government would do if Russia should demand his client's surrender, has appeared since the call, or talk of a call, and if the protestants are in earnest they will make the most of it.

According to the St. Louis newspapers, the manufacture of infernal machines is going on actively in that city, and a "well-known Irish revolutionist" there "claims" that the machines recently seized in Liverpool were made in St. Louis. He says that he knew all about it from the first, and admits that it is "rather brutal to destroy a hecatomb of people in order to reach one man," but insists that "actual experiment is the best way to convince these people that the bomb idea won't work in England." The reporter was referred by this thoughtful agitator for further information to Mr. Denis O'Hara, whom he found to be of that "clear-cut and transparent type of Irishmen who seem to join an almost feminine delicacy of feature with an iron understanding"—a type which, we suspect, is not common in any part of the world. Mr. O'Hara, on learning the errand of the reporter, readily gave him all the information he desired. He said that it need cause his visitor no surprise that he was ready to talk freely, because by the time the interview was published he should be "away," and, besides that, he was a member of no oath-bound order. "If a man betrays us we kill him; that is all there is to it." Mr. O'Hara says that since June 20 he has himself sent over to England eighty-six infernal machines, of which number at least fifty, he thinks, have got safely into the island. The intention of the conspirators is to "cripple the English navy," but crippling is a word which does not quite accurately describe his intentions, for "three years from to-day there will not be an English man-of-war on the ocean." It is hardly necessary to add, "We are desperate and determined men."

One of the results of the investigations of the New Jersey Constitutional Commission now in session will probably be to sweep out of existence the "lay" judiciary of that State. The theory of "lay judges," which has made its appearance at various parts of the country at different times in its history, is that by associating a judge trained in the law with a judge who knows no law you get something as a result which is better than law—something simpler, and purer, and less technical, and less harsh than law, which may perhaps be supposed to resemble abstract justice. As a mat-

ter of fact, it has invariably turned out, wherever "lay" judges have been employed, except in justices' courts in the country, where in most cases no technical knowledge is required, that the judicial product of the mixture of law with ignorance of law has not been justice, but confusion and uncertainty. In New Jersey, where Bench and Bar have preserved most of their ancient traditions intact, it will be rather a surprise to most persons to know that the existing judicial system of the State provides for "lay judges" at all.

Dr. Howard Crosby, the President of the Society for the Prevention of Crime, delivered an address on Sunday, in which he gave a depressing account of his unsuccessful attempt to suppress the illegal liquor-traffic in this city. A State law, passed in 1857, forbids the sale of liquor to be drunk on the premises by any but recognized "hotels," and the Society went to work several years ago to enforce this law. A test case was decided by the Court of Appeals in favor of the Society in 1877, and the Society then got the Police Commissioners, for the first time, to enforce the statute, with the result that "for nine days and nights in December, 1877, there was not a rum-hole open." Now, however, the Mayor interfered, and caused the indictment of the Police Commissioners (Dr. Crosby speaks of his action as if it was intended for the benefit of the "rumsellers"), and within twenty-four hours "all the rum-holes were in full blast again." The next year the efforts of the Society were directed to preventing the passage at Albany of a "free rum law," and in this it was successful. The law of 1857 was allowed to stand, but the Excise Commissioners went to work and nullified it by deliberately making every "rum-hole" in New York a "hotel." Then the Society had the Commissioners indicted. It took exactly a year to bring them to trial, and the trial was a farce. At length a "rumseller" was convicted under the law, but he was immediately pardoned by Governor Robinson. Then Mayor Cooper was induced to turn the Commissioners out. The present Commissioners, Dr. Crosby says, are reasonable men, but they will not enforce the law because they say the community will not support them. He seems to overlook the fact that there is a good deal in this objection. In such a city as New York the restriction of the sale of liquor to hotels proper is an impossibility, and in any good license law this ought to be borne in mind. Dr. Crosby's experience with the law of 1857 proves that it cannot be enforced, except spasmodically, and if we are to be shut up to the alternative between "free rum" and this antiquated statute we shall always have "free rum."

The London *Times* of July 23 contains a remonstrance on the subject of Penn's bones written by Mr. George J. Harrison, commissioner for Pennsylvania. It is not, of course, necessary to import the bones into Pennsylvania if all that is wanted is a memorial of Penn, because a monument is an effective reminder even without bones. Mr. Harrison, however,

thinks otherwise. He insists that if the bones are allowed to remain in England the feeling about Penn in Pennsylvania will die out. "Neither painting, nor statue, nor memorial building will serve the purpose so well as a tomb which holds the ashes of the people's benefactor." It might be inferred from this that the commissioners intended, if they got possession of the bones, to subject them to the process of cremation before consigning them to their permanent resting-place. But the context shows that the word is used metaphorically, and is really intended as a synonym for "bones." But how is it, if "bones" are required to keep alive a strong sentiment of this kind, that the present excitement on the subject has arisen? Can the mere hope of securing possession of a distinguished man's bones arouse a feeling which reverence for his memory and gratitude for his services will not make perpetual? Mr. Harrison refers to the case of Napoleon's bones, and insists that nothing will "arouse the adherents of his dynasty to perpetuate it like the tomb in which his relics rest in the Hôtel des Invalides in Paris," but this is an unfortunate illustration just now, for it would seem from recent events that the bones of Napoleon are beginning to lose their power among the adherents of the dynasty. In fact, the party could hardly be in a worse condition if the bones were in St. Helena.

Under the lead of Lord Salisbury, but apparently with some reluctance, the House of Lords has loaded down the Irish Land Bill with amendments which radically alter the character of the measure. One of these strikes out the words authorizing the land court to "have reference to the interest of tenant and landlord respectively"—a change which seems intended to prevent the recognition of the property of the tenant in his holding. The bill has gone back to the House of Commons. The obstruction offered by the House of Lords appears to be mainly due to the obstinacy of Lord Salisbury, who seems to be blinder than the majority who follow him to the dangerous position into which they are getting themselves.

The electoral contest now going on in France is in the main a contest between two different shades of Republicanism, of which President Grévy and Gambetta are the respective exponents. The former represents faithful adherence to the constitution as it is, the latter insists on radical reform, for which, as his mouthpiece Spuller emphatically tells us, "the country yearns," demanding the consolidation of the Republic on the basis of "the broadest, freest, and most enlightened democracy." There is, however, no open hostility between them; but the late defeat of his favorite measure, the *scrutin de liste*, has forced Gambetta to seek "vindication" in the electoral canvass. At Tours, a few days ago, while announcing his programme, he warmly eulogized the President, and declared himself—contrary to some former expressions—in favor of the existence of two Chambers, though desirous to see both animated by one spirit. He

would introduce into the mode of nominating senators the principle of proportionate equality of communes, would urge the abrogation of the irremovability of the senators elected for life, and their submitting to re-election by a congress of the two houses. He advocated a complete system of secular primary education, the introduction of measures tending to make entrance into public service independent of private means, and the enactment of a law giving workmen complete liberty of association; and—imitating and surpassing Bismarck in courting the support of the laboring classes—proposed a system of Government life insurance, accident insurance, and insurance of crops. All this is certainly radical enough, but slightly vague, and, perhaps, is partly meant only as a bid. The Cabinet at first seemed inclined to observe neutrality in the struggle, and leave the advocacy of moderation to independent leaders, but M. Ferry, the Premier, has now taken the stump in person. The Bonapartists, Legitimists, and Clericals are also in the field.

The electoral contest for the German Reichstag waxes hotter from week to week. Prince Bismarck's organs, such as the *Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung*, the *Provinzial-Korrespondenz*, and the *Grenzboten*, carry on an aggressive warfare against the Liberals, with violent attacks on their leaders, both past and present. The source of the inspiration of these journals renders retaliation in kind a very delicate if not an impossible task. The Opposition tactics are, therefore, defensive and comparatively free from personalities. Bismarck's numerous tentative moves in various directions are, however, sharply criticised, and his coquetting with Protectionists, Ultramontanes, Socialists, Anti-Semites, etc., boldly commented upon, less as being manœuvres dangerous in themselves than as indicating a determined resolution to continue a dictatorship based neither on a great principle nor on a great party, upheld by a more skilful than honest shuffling of the political cards, and derogatory to the intelligence and manhood of the nation. The supporters of the Prince Chancellor by local coalitions of a very questionable character—as in Berlin against the Progressists—offer frequent opportunities to such opposition journals as the *Kölnische Zeitung* or the *Augsburg Allgemeine* for ridiculing the so-called Conservative camps, in which former *Culturkämpfer* shake hands with Ultramontanists and Anti-Semites, and former Free-Traders bargain with Socialists for mutual support at the polls. Yet, judging from the result of the late elections for the Bavarian and Saxon Diets, and other indications, the "immoral" coalitions in favor of the Prince's rule—with its indirect taxes, laborers' life and accident insurance, protection and free-port annexation—are likely to be triumphant at many an election for the Reichstag, and the prospects of the Liberals are, on the whole, to say the least, not bright. That no party will have a majority of votes is sure, and the balance of power will probably remain with the Centre, or Ultramontane, party.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.
DOMESTIC.

FOR several days previous to Monday the daily increase of the President's fever had been unusual, and there was a doubt as to whether the cause was the formation of a new pus cavity or merely the obstruction of the flow, owing to the too rapid healing of the entrance of the wound. Monday morning, accordingly, another operation was determined upon and the latter was found to be the case. After the President had been etherized Dr. Agnew enlarged the old opening about three inches downward and forward, and made another incision into the track of the ball below the margin of the twelfth rib. For the present at least, therefore, the discharge will continue free. Naturally, the President experienced considerable exhaustion and suffered a good deal from nausea; the pulse and temperature also increased noticeably, but as soon as the effects of both the ether and the operation have passed off Dr. Agnew anticipates decided improvement.

The report of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue to the Secretary of the Treasury gives the receipts of the office for the year ended June 30 as \$135,229,902 12, and the expenses as \$5,063,330. During the past five years, the term of Commissioner Raum's administration, \$602,310,787 22 have been collected, the expense of collection being \$21,992,330, or 3.37 per cent. upon the amount collected. During the past year the largest receipts from any State have been those from Illinois—nearly twenty-six millions; Ohio comes next with nineteen, and then New York with seventeen; the next is Kentucky with nearly nine millions.

The Conservative-Democratic party of Virginia, as the Funder-Democrats of that State formally call themselves, held their Convention at Richmond last Thursday. It was composed of six hundred delegates, and its action was thoroughly "harmonious" and enthusiastic. The resolutions adopted declare, among other things, that "the maintenance of the public credit of Virginia is the essential means to the promotion of her prosperity," condemn "repudiation in every shape and form as a blot upon her honor," pledge the party "to use all lawful authority to secure a settlement of the State debt so that there shall be but one class of public debt," recommend as the basis of such settlement a 3 per cent. bond, pledge the party further "not to increase the present rate of taxation," and, finally, denounce as "unfounded in fact" and "dishonorable to its authors" any intimation that the party "has been, is now, or proposes to be opposed to an honest ballot and a fair count." After the adoption of this platform the Convention expressed the "tender sympathy" of its members with President Garfield and proceeded to ballot for a candidate for Governor. The principal candidates were General Fitzhugh Lee, James A. Walker, and James Goode. On the second ballot, however, John W. Daniel, of Lynchburg (a Mahone stronghold), was nominated and made a speech, accepting the honor and approving the resolutions "from beginning to end." Mr. Daniel is thirty-nine years old and served on the Confederate side during the war, being at one time assistant adjutant-general under General Early. He has been a Greenbacker and is accused of having at one time favored "readjustment." The remainder of the ticket is: for Lieutenant-Governor, James Barbour, and for Attorney-General, Philip W. McKinney.

The North Carolina election passed off very quietly on the 4th. The vote was so light that it has been difficult by comparing the returns with those of former years when intimidation has been charged—none has been heard of this

year—to extract much significance from the result, so far as bull-doing is concerned. The interest of the election resided wholly in the fact that the main issue was prohibition, which, in a particularly radical form, was advocated by the Democracy. The negroes voted with the Republicans in opposition to the proposed measure, but as the majority against it is over 40,000, many Democrats must have voted similarly, at which no especial astonishment is expressed.

The Kentucky election on the second inst. was for a State treasurer, nineteen senators and one hundred representatives, and a judge of the Court of Appeals from the Third District, comprising twenty-one counties of the State. There was a light vote and no disturbance of importance. The result was, of course, an overwhelming Democratic success as usual, though the Republicans made a slight gain in their legislative representation. The call for a constitutional convention is defeated by the smallness of the vote, all votes not polled being counted against it. Mr. Beck's return to the United States Senate is assured.

The Mississippi Democratic State Convention met at Jackson on the 3d and spent the day in organizing, there being many contesting delegations. Thursday was passed in taking twenty ballots for Governor. Late on Friday the nomination of Mr. Lowry was secured by the withdrawal of other candidates, amongst them Col. Barksdale, who now asserts that he retired with the promise of substantial support for the United States Senatorship, which, together with the defeat of Gov. Stone, Mr. Lamar's candidate, is supposed to presage Lamar's retirement from the Senate. The politics of the State are, however, in a very confused condition, and predictions are difficult to make. General Chalmers, who is hostile to Lamar, is said to have an eye upon the Senatorial succession and to expect the assistance of the Greenbackers. The latter hold their convention on the 24th inst., and the Republicans meet on the 25th. A joint ticket and consequent "live campaign for Lowry" are already spoken of.

The Maine Democrats of the Second Congressional District, contrary to the advice of ex-Governor Garcelon either to endorse the Greenback candidate or to adjourn without making any nomination, nominated Franklin Reed, of Bath, by acclamation, on Thursday last, at Lewiston.

Delegates from nineteen out of eighty-eight counties organized the Ohio State Prohibition Convention at Columbus on the 4th inst. They endorsed the ticket nominated by the recent Temperance Convention at Loveland, and supplied a vacancy in it; adopted resolutions declaring in favor of "absolute prohibition of the liquor-traffic," of woman suffrage, of laws against "gambling in gold, stocks, or produce," and various other measures, and pronounced Guiteau's attempt "a startling illustration of the danger arising from the debasing influences of executive patronage and the liquor crime."

A Commission appointed some time ago by the Governor and Legislature of New Jersey to consider and recommend amendments to the State Constitution, met at Newark on Friday and listened to arguments as to proposed changes in the State judiciary. At its next meeting it will consider the subject of railway taxation.

Hartmann, the Russian Nihilist refugee, betook himself to Canada last week, abandoning his project of enlisting the sympathies of Americans in the cause of his order or faction, in view of some uncomfortable statements made to a reporter by Assistant Secretary of State Hitt. These were to the effect that if the Russian Government should ask for Hartmann's extradition on the charge of mur-

der, and he could be unmistakably identified, he would be surrendered. Some doubt had been expressed as to his identity, but as, at all events, assumption of this was his only "card" here, he concluded to seek protection under the British flag, where he had found it before. Hartmann devised the machinery by which a train of people were blown up near Moscow, the late Czar's movements at the time having been miscalculated.

The amount of offal which the harbor of New York is constantly receiving appears at last to have attracted sharks of a man-eating size and in considerable numbers. There have been bathers frightened during the past two or three years, and at least one instance of the serious mangling of a boy, but the exaggerated rumors provoked by such occurrences have not hitherto been very widely credited, perhaps. This year, however, the presence of sharks in the bay and along the piers of both rivers seems to have been frequent, and last week several were caught off Pier 23 on the North River and exhibited. One weighed four hundred pounds and was ten and a half feet long, and another only a trifle smaller. This pier has heretofore been one of the most popular places for surreptitious bathing, but, like the rest of both river fronts, has, since the shark excitement, caused the police very little vigilance.

Owing to an injunction restraining Trustee Chaffee from using the funds of the company for running expenses, all the works belonging to the Sprague estate have been closed. They include the Baltic, Quiddick, and Arctic mills in Providence, those at Natick and Kennebec, Me., the Morgan Mill at Johnson, the United States Flax Company's works, and the Cranston Print works. Over six thousand men, besides a large number of women and children, are thus suddenly thrown out of employment.

The Joint Executive Committee of the trunk railway lines, which have been "cutting under" the regular tariff rates for both passengers and freight for some time, held a meeting on Friday in this city, and agreed on a new freight tariff to take the place of the old which will at least effect a temporary change. The rumor that a conference of the presidents of the various lines will be held at Saratoga this week is vigorously denied by Mr. Vanderbilt.

William G. Fargo, President of the American Express Company, died at his residence in Buffalo on the 3d inst., in his sixty-fourth year, and after a life of great business activity and success. The deaths of James Clark, the senior member of the spool-cotton manufacturing firm at Paisley, Scotland, and of Bishop E. O. Haven of the Methodist Church, and of a literary and theological reputation, at Salem, Oregon, also occurred last week.

Orvil L. Grant, the brother of ex-President Grant, who has been a year in the New Jersey State Asylum for the Insane at Morris Plains, died there Friday, in his forty-seventh year.

General Robert Patterson died in Philadelphia on Sunday. He was of Irish birth and served this country, whither he early came, in the War of 1812, the Mexican War, and the Rebellion.

FOREIGN.

The Duke of Argyll, who left the Cabinet on account of differences on the Land Bill, attacked the measure in the House of Lords on the 2d inst. in vigorous terms, comparing the Government to a jelly-fish, and describing its procedure as "eminently ridiculous." He was followed by the Duke of Marlborough, Lord Selborne, Lord Cairns, and others on the same side, and the *Times* admitted that the Liberals were no match for their opponents either in oratory or in mastery of the subject. Over

fifty amendments, twenty of which are described as serious, were determined upon at a meeting of the Tories, and in the main received a steady majority during the consideration of the bill. In reference to clause seven, Lord Salisbury moved on Friday that "in any proceedings under the act the rent of a holding should not be reduced on account of any sum paid by a tenant or his predecessors, on coming into the holding." Despite protests from many of his own party, the Tory leader insisted on this and carried it by a vote of 157 to 110. The bill was finally passed through committee on the same day, and on Monday night the House read the bill for a third time without a division.

The Liberal press expresses marked indignation at the freedom of amendment exercised by the Lords. The *Pall Mall Gazette* speaks of the measure as "maimed and impaired." According to the *Daily News*, "The bill is both transformed and deformed," and the writer continues: "The House of Commons must decide whether a veto on legislation, which the Crown no longer possesses, is to be exercised by Lord Salisbury and the mute herd which follows his lead in the House of Lords." Mr. Bright, in a speech at the Mansion House, Saturday night, "ignored the amendments of the House of Lords, and spoke of the bill as almost ready to receive the royal assent." A conference on Thursday between the Liberal leaders in the Upper House with Mr. Gladstone, to decide what amendments should be accepted, apparently resulted in nothing practical, but it is not deemed likely that any changes that touch the principle of the bill will be adopted.

At the weekly meeting of the Land League on the 2d inst. it was announced that the usual remittance from America had not arrived, and that accordingly there were but £319 to be acknowledged. Arrests during the week have been few, those of Messrs. Murphy and Campion, of Queen's, being the most important. Sunday, John Dillon, M.P., was released from Kilmainham jail by order of the Lord-Lieutenant, and his exit has given rise to rumors that all the "suspects" are soon to be released also. The release of Davitt, indeed, it is reported, will take place on September 1, with the understanding that he shall not return to Ireland for seven years. Mr. Forster, however, replying to various questions in the House of Commons on Monday, said that Dillon had been released simply because the Government had learned that further confinement would endanger his life.

McGrath and McKevitt, who pleaded guilty to the indictment charging them with attempting to blow up the Liverpool Town-Hall, were found guilty and sentenced, the former for life, and the latter for fifteen years at hard labor, on the 2d inst.

A very large meeting was held in Trafalgar Square on the 2d inst. to protest against Mr. Bradlaugh's exclusion from his seat in the House of Commons, to which no one denies that he has been elected. Mr. Bradlaugh made a great speech, announcing at the close that he would "go home" the next day. The next day, however, in deference to a previous engagement, he attempted to force his way into the House of Commons, and much fright was caused lest his "supporters" should gain access to the lobby and enable him to accomplish his design. Orders were accordingly issued to prevent the admission to the lobby of any but members of Parliament. Just before noon Mr. Bradlaugh appeared, approaching through the members' entrance. He "looked pale, and evidently suffered from suppressed excitement"; indeed, "it was frequently remarked that he looked like an animated corpse." At the door, however, stood a number of policemen "picked for great bodily strength," besides two deputy ser-

geants-at-arms, and when Mr. Bradlaugh attempted to push one of the latter aside he was seized and dragged forcibly to the entrance. He resisted, and "a painful scene" ensued, in which the agitator's coat was torn, and at the end of which he was hustled unceremoniously, and in spite of vigorous struggling, down the staircase and into the arms of his "supporters." A number of members who were present at the finale cried "Shame! shame!" and an incipient riot threatened.

When the news got into the House Mr. Labouchere at once raised the question of privilege that the resolution in regard to Mr. Bradlaugh only excluded him from the House, whereas he had been hustled out of the lobby, and moved that the officials had exceeded their authority. The Speaker decided against him and Mr. Gladstone supported the Speaker, adding that Mr. Bradlaugh must thenceforth be treated as having no more right to enter the House than a stranger. Sir Wilfrid Lawson moved that the resolutions against Mr. Bradlaugh's admission be rescinded, but was ruled out of order. Finally, after sympathetic and indignant speeches by Mr. Broadhurst and Mr. Cowen (advanced Liberal and Radical, respectively), Mr. Bright described how "Mr. Bradlaugh was brought down to the Palace yard in a fainting condition," and appealed to the Opposition to reconsider their former decision in the matter, but was called to order for irrelevancy, and a motion to approve the whole conduct of the dealings with Mr. Bradlaugh was adopted by a vote of 191 to 7. Mr. Bradlaugh went to Bow Street and attempted to procure the arrest of the officers who handled him so roughly, but without success. In the House on Monday Mr. Gladstone announced that the resolutions preventing him from taking the oath would expire with the present session, that at the next he might present himself, and that meanwhile the Government would "consider the matter."

M. Gambetta made an important speech at a banquet at Tours on Friday, in response to a toast to President Grévy. He regretted that the rejection by the Senate of the *scrutin de liste* had cut off "the opportunity of consulting the democratic party in a broader and deeper manner than at present," but declared that, in spite of what had occurred, he was still in favor of the existence of two Chambers. He desired, however, to see both Houses animated by the same spirit, and deemed it necessary to introduce into the mode of nominating Senators the principle of proportional equality of communes. With him, moreover, it was a question whether the irremovability of Senators was not contrary to the principles of universal suffrage, and he observed that whereas the first irremovable Senators were elected by the National Assembly, they are now chosen by the Senate itself. They should, he considered, submit to a re-election by a congress of both Houses. In this way the Republican majority would obtain the "ballast and stability" it at present lacked, and a restriction of the constitutional revision to this might find a majority in the Senate willing to pass it. Among other reforms which M. Gambetta advocated were a complete system of primary secular education, and a law giving workmen complete liberty of association. The main point of the speech was, however, the desirability of the fusion into a compact Ministerial majority of the different Parliamentary groups—an end which, of course, the *scrutin de liste* was designed to accomplish.

The press reception of the oration is not very flattering, though it appears to have been very popular. *La France* and the *National* are unfavorable, and consider the "programme" foreshadowed vague and dangerous. *Le Temps* eulogizes the speech, but does not deem the reconstitution of the Senate at all urgent. The *Journal des Débats* condemns the proposal, and points out that two months

ago Gambetta did so himself. The *Paix*, the *Parlement*, and the *Dix-Neuvième Siècle* express similar opinions. There is at present but very little excitement with reference to the approaching election, and, so far as reported, no important Republican attempt to oppose M. Gambetta's programme, "vague" as it is, is likely to be made except upon the part of M. Jules Ferry, the Premier, who is announced as contemplating an active and conservative campaign.

M. Rouher has published a letter to the Electors of the Department of Puy-de-Dôme, which he represented in the last Chamber of Deputies, announcing his retirement from public life. After his long service he considers that he has "the right of not proceeding further," and he regards his permanent withdrawal from politics as "an act of dignity and homage towards those who are no more"—i.e., the late Prince Imperial.

Two battalions of French troops and a battery of artillery have arrived at Goletta, which is called the first entry of the French military into the capital of Tunis. England and Italy, it is announced, have determined to send two more iron-clads to the Tunisian coast to protect their respective subjects. General Lougeret declares that he has discovered the plunder of the European quarters at Sfax to have been the work of Arabs before the landing of the French troops. Bou-Amena is reported to be "disheartened," and the inhabitants of Susa have applied for French protection.

Mr. Levi P. Morton the new, and Mr. Noyes the retiring, United States Minister to France, had an audience of President Grévy on the 5th inst. In presenting his credentials Mr. Morton remarked that, though America is on friendly relations with all nations, "towards France she cherishes a warmer and deeper feeling," and spoke of "the great work of securing popular freedom under the control of law" as the sentiment which "binds the two leading republics of the world." In reply M. Grévy observed that if the relations of the two countries could possibly be further strengthened the choice of Mr. Morton as Minister would secure that end, and added kind wishes for the prosperity of the country and the recovery of President Garfield. Similar courtesies were exchanged with Mr. Noyes.

In spite of much opposition to the bestowal of such honors upon a "comedian," M. Got, of the Théâtre Français, was made a Knight of the Legion of Honor, last week, to the great delight of his friends, to whom it is a "triumph for art."

It is now reported that the recent journey of the Russian Court to Moscow was due to the discovery of an extensive conspiracy to assassinate the imperial family. Sixty persons, some of them of high rank, are said to have been concerned in the plot. The trial of the "Black Division" will be begun on the 28th prox. before a special court. A reward has been offered for the capture of persons guilty of spreading among the peasants false reports regarding the redistribution of lands.

The Emperors of Germany and of Austria held a short conference, otherwise than socially of no importance so far as appears, at Gastein on the 5th inst., after which the latter went to Munich.

Ayub Khan, it is reported, entered Kandahar on the 30th ult.

The announcement of the census of Canada taken last April has just been made. The population is reckoned at 4,350,933, an increase of 18.02 per cent. in ten years; in 1871 it was 3,686,505. The increase is not satisfactory to the Canadians, and, moreover, the showing is reported to be as good as it is partly because of the inclusion of permanent absentees—emigrants from the Province of Quebec to New England factory-towns, for example.

NEW YORK CITY AND HER RIVALS.

WE have been requested, apropos of the present "railroad war," to give some attention to the special interests of New York as affected by the pooling arrangements of the trunk-line roads, which allow the cities of Philadelphia and Baltimore differential rates to offset the natural or acquired advantages of this city as a centre of the export and import trade. The facts are substantially these: Under the pooling arrangement, third and fourth-class goods may be taken from Western points to Baltimore at three cents per one hundred pounds less than to New York, and to Philadelphia at two cents less; on first and second-class goods to Baltimore at eight cents less, and to Philadelphia at six cents less. Rates to Boston are the same as to New York, although the distance to the former city is fifty miles greater than to the latter. Various reasons are given for allowing these advantages to Philadelphia and Baltimore. Distance is somewhat in favor of those places, and cheapness of coal is somewhat in favor of the Baltimore and Ohio and the Pennsylvania railways. These facts would seem to be better calculated to serve as arguments for New York railways—*i.e.*, to justify them in getting all the business possible under such adverse circumstances—than to warrant the establishment of arbitrary rates in favor of Baltimore and Philadelphia. The New York Central managers, however, have always contended that, by reason of their low grades, their large local business, their New England traffic, and the marked supremacy of New York as an entrepôt of foreign trade, they could carry at as low a rate from Western points to this city as any competing line could carry to Baltimore or Philadelphia; and in this matter we have no doubt they spoke the truth.

Why, then, are differential rates allowed to rival cities? The reason is that the natural and acquired advantages of New York as a shipping point are so decided that upon equal rates of freight she would take nearly all the business, and leave Baltimore and Philadelphia and their tributary railways an insignificant share of the export trade. But the Pennsylvania and the Baltimore and Ohio railways are bound to get what they consider their share of the through-traffic from the West, and rather than surrender it they will carry freight for the bare cost of operating expenses, or even for less. In their view this is a matter of life and death, and they might as well die carrying for nothing as die for nothing to carry. Hence the New York roads must either allow them a rate sufficient to offset, or partly offset, the natural advantages of New York, or enter upon a war of rates leading to a serious diminution if not a total drying up of profits. In other words, there are four or five trunk-lines from the Atlantic seaboard to the Mississippi Valley, and they must all be supported or none can be. The unrestrained law of competition would result in bankruptcy to the carrying companies, but, as George Stephenson sagely observed nearly half a century ago, where combination

is possible competition is impossible, or at best only occasional and fitful.

Now, it is not easy to say what should be done under these circumstances. The Chamber of Commerce Committee allege that the pooling arrangement is consented to by the New York roads in order to "sustain rates high enough to pay returns upon their enormous mass of watered stock." This is probably true, but if the New York roads had no watered stock—if they had no stock at all—the principle would still hold good, that if one or two roads consider it to be a life-and-death matter that they shall handle a certain proportion of the through-traffic from the West, the New York roads must either allow them to do so or must carry for nothing, and tax their local business to make up the difference. It is presumed that they tax their local business already "as much as the trade will bear." At all events this is alleged against them, and it is not desirable that such traffic should be subjected to heavier burdens. So long as the Erie Canal could carry at cheaper rates than any railway, New York had an immense advantage over other Atlantic cities, and one of which she availed herself to the utmost; and her metropolitan position is due to it. But now that railways can carry on equal terms with the canal, her superiority is liable to be contested by any city which can push a road to the Mississippi Valley, and this regardless of the capitalization of New York railways. Perhaps the abolition of tolls on the canal, when effected, will restore to the city the advantage it so long enjoyed. The experiment is well worth trying, especially since new regions adjacent to Lake Superior are destined to cut a large figure in the grain trade, whose traffic can be more advantageously handled by water *via* the Sault-Ste.-Marie Canal than by the long haul around the southern bend of Lake Michigan.

THE BRADLAUGH AGITATION.

MR. BRADLAUGH'S Parliamentary proceedings, which culminated last week in his attempt to get into the House of Commons by main force, constitute what in French politics is known as an "incident." It has no direct connection with any of the questions upon which parties ordinarily divide, it need never have occurred at all, yet having occurred it creates great excitement and commotion, and forces politicians to take sides upon a question which they have no real desire even to discuss.

The history of the case is a curious one. When Mr. Bradlaugh was elected to the House of Commons he refused to take the customary oath on the ground that he did not believe in the existence of a God. Many people found it hard to understand why an atheist should object to recite what must be to him a mere meaningless form of words; but Mr. Bradlaugh's conscientious scruples appeared to arise from a feeling that to take an oath under such circumstances would be what Carlyle would have termed "unveracious" conduct, and truckling to the "mother of dead dogs."

If this were a true representation of the condition of Mr. Bradlaugh's mind, it would only serve to show that he is an extremely conscientious man, highly sensitive with regard to the obligation of truth, and therefore a member whose scruples Parliament could not afford to slight. In this country the statutes of almost every State provide for the case of persons having conscientious scruples on the subject of oaths by providing that they shall take an affirmation instead, and although with us these nice consciences are more often developed among persons anxious to escape from jury duty than among statesmen with lofty political aims, still the principle is the same.

If the matter had ended here there would not have been much to say about it, except that it was a defect in the law of England or of the House of Commons that such a case should be unprovided for. But Mr. Bradlaugh changed his mind about the oath, and expressed a willingness to take it. The House of Commons, however, now said that he could by no means be allowed to do so, because he had already shown that oaths placed him under no religious obligation. In other words, the House, which originally would have been perfectly ready to admit Mr. Bradlaugh, an avowed disbeliever in the existence of a God, to his seat, provided he would take the oath, now objected to his taking the oath because his refusal to take it on a former occasion had proved that he did not believe in the existence of a God. Up to this point it would be a nice question which had displayed the greater delicacy of conscience, the House or Mr. Bradlaugh, but the only result which the trouble had produced was the exclusion of Mr. Bradlaugh, and his sudden conversion from an unpopular agitator into a martyr. The dispute, however, left Mr. Bradlaugh in a much better position than the House, for his exclusion after his expression of willingness to take the oath cannot be justified.

Not content with his exclusion, to make sure that nothing should be left undone, one of the most zealous members of the House went to work and had Mr. Bradlaugh prosecuted for illegal voting while in the House, under an old statute certainly never intended by its framers to be applied to such a case, and an enormous fine was imposed upon him, which he has no means of paying. Having considerable ingenuity, however, it occurred to him that if he was guilty of crime in voting in the House of Commons before being duly sworn in, his prosecutor was probably guilty of another old-fashioned crime in supplying money to institute proceedings to have him punished, and he therefore at once began proceedings against him for "maintenance." Finally he makes an attempt to enter the House by force. His attempt being pretty well advertised in advance, he draws together an immense crowd, who loudly cheer him on, the police throw themselves upon him in a body, and, after a fight in which Mr. Bradlaugh is said to have "contended for every inch of the ground," he is at length driven off the field, announcing, however, to the crowd that he will return to the

House "with sufficient force to either effect his entrance or compel the Government to arrest him." Petitions from all quarters have been pouring in in his behalf, and the Government have given out their intention to furnish him relief at the next session.

The case is a curious illustration of the fact that agitators who can manage to identify themselves in any way with popular rights can afford to take many more serious risks than their opponents can. Mr. Bradlaugh occupies logically an utterly indefensible position, and his attempt to make his way to his seat *vi et armis* is an act such as no legislative body in the world could permit and long continue to exist. But an injustice is done him and his constituents by excluding him from the House; most people feel that in these times the exclusion is impolitic and unfair, even if technically proper. The result is that the impression is rapidly gaining ground that Mr. Bradlaugh is a victim of tyranny and oppression, and that "the people" must stand by him.

The case recalls that of Wilkes, but the wide difference between the two men, between the grounds of the dispute about their right to sit in the House, and between the House of Commons as it was in Wilkes's time and as it is now, makes the questions presented by the Bradlaugh incident practically new. Wilkes, but for his unfair treatment by the House, would have had as little sympathy as Bradlaugh originally had; but this was owing to his private life, while in Bradlaugh's case his first notoriety, and his original widespread unpopularity, grew out of his publicly-expressed opinions. Wilkes's legal position with regard to the House was perfectly consistent, sound, and intelligible throughout, while Bradlaugh had at the outset, when he refused to take the oath, really no legal position at all. On the other hand, the House of Commons, in Wilkes's day a close corporation which the Government managed by the open use of money, has, in our time, become a strictly representative body, which is forced to regard the rights and feelings of constituencies in a way it never had done before. It is this fact which furnishes Mr. Bradlaugh and agitators like him with their political capital.

"FAIR TRADE" IN GREAT BRITAIN.

IN considering the so-called Fair-Trade movement in England the first question to be asked is whether it represents any body of opinion in the United Kingdom sufficiently strong, compact, and organized (or capable of being organized), to be called a "Movement," or whether it is only the repetition of mutterings that have been heard from time to time ever since the repeal of the Corn Laws. A considerable portion of the landlord class have never been reconciled to free trade, even in the years most prosperous to the agricultural interest. When Sir Robert Peel abandoned protection they abandoned him and ranged themselves under other leaders, among whom Mr. Disraeli eventually became the chief. Disraeli, perceiving that the Corn Laws were as dead

in England as the *corvée* in France, persuaded the land-owners that, although their principles were undoubtedly right, the times were not propitious for reasserting them. We believe that he never publicly recanted the dogmas of protection, although he put his foot upon every movement in the conservative ranks to rehabilitate them, either in or out of Parliament. Consequently, the protectionist policy, which has at no time been destitute of adherents, has had no leader since the death of Lord George Bentinck.

The competition of American agriculture during the past four or five years, coupled with harvests below the average in yield and quality; has produced almost a social revolution in Great Britain. Rents have fallen, or are destined to fall, thirty-three per cent. on the average, and this means in many cases, where estates are encumbered by settlements and by mortgage, the total extinguishment of the landlord's income. His portion being the surplus over a fixed money payment due to others, the whole loss from reduced rentals falls upon him; but it has happened in some instances that the reduction has been so great as to carry away all of his receipts and a portion of the entailment also. A great deal of suffering and soreness has resulted from the enforced lowering of rents. The old-school protectionists, whom Disraeli kept in subjection while he lived, are now reinforced and embittered by hard times and the prospect of continued hard times. It happens at this crisis of the agricultural interest that the commercial treaty with France has expired by limitation, that trade negotiations are pending with Spain, and that Germany has adopted a protective policy. Now, if ever, is the time for putting a duty on foreign grain for the benefit of English land-owners.

But it is too late a day in British annals to talk of re-enacting the Corn Laws for their own sake. Lord George Bentinck himself, if alive, would not expose himself to the sarcasm which such a scheme would bring upon its supporters. Protection must take some other shape unless it is to be laughed out of court. The enemies of free trade must find some disguise. Not even reciprocity will answer for a new shibboleth—the hollowness of that phrase having been long ago exposed and its advocates silenced. "Fair Trade" is the latest euphemism adopted for protection. As expounded by Mr. Bonamy Price, who does not avow himself one of its supporters, it assumes that it is within the competency of statesmanship to put some pressure upon countries which enforce protective tariffs against British goods by adopting discriminating duties against their goods. It would be worth considering, for instance, whether a tax laid upon American breadstuffs and provisions equivalent to the American tax on British iron would not help the Yankees to see the folly of protection, and thus promote the cause of "fair trade" between the two countries.

We venture the opinion that it would have that tendency, but that it would cost more than it would come to, and that it will not be

carried into effect. A week's travel in the north of England and the south of Scotland will satisfy any observer that Great Britain has so far outgrown her land and her land-owners that no legislation having their special interests in view is worth a moment's attention if contrived at the expense of her furnaces, her looms, and her ships. Her manufactures and commerce dominate the markets and waters of the world—at no time more unmistakably than now. Her superiority is based upon cheapness of production—the art of offering more to foreign countries in return for their goods than rivals can afford to give. When she ceases to be master of this art she will cease to be Great Britain. Cheap food is an essential and indispensable factor in her problem. Fair trade may be a desirable thing, but the most unfair trade for her would be any system which makes bread and meat more costly. A plan to add five shillings per ton to the cost of coal by act of Parliament would not be more untenable, and would not be more hotly rejected if seriously proposed.

The inconsequential character of the Fair-Trade movement is disclosed by a late article in the *Quarterly Review*, which sets forth the grounds upon which its advocates rest their case. After arguing at great length that British trade is declining and that of foreign countries increasing—a postulate not supported but distinctly contradicted by statistics—the reviewer shows that sufficient revenue might be derived from a duty on corn to enable the Ministry to reduce or repeal the income-tax. This suggestion that the bread of the poor be taxed in order to spare the superfluities of the rich has met with all the ridicule it deserves, and there being no other gain hinted at in the article, except the hypothetical one that the Americans might learn something to their advantage if their grain were encumbered with a protective duty, it is evident that the cause of "Fair Trade" is not likely to make many converts. Free trade has never rested upon more solid foundations in Great Britain than at the present time. The supporters of protection under its new disguise are not as numerous or as influential, relatively, as the Greenback party in the United States.

SOCIETY NEWS.

WHEN the London "society journals" first began the business of furnishing the public with reports of the gossip and scandal floating about London drawing-rooms and clubs, their appearance created a good deal of astonishment on both sides of the Atlantic. English newspapers had, time out of mind, carefully avoided this branch of enterprise, and it had become an established tradition about English society that what it especially loved was exclusiveness, and what it especially detested was any invasion of its privacy. In this country particularly, where until very recently the ideas commonly prevalent about English society were drawn mainly from the descriptions of novelists whose social atmosphere really belonged to the past, there seemed to be something monstrous and totally un-English in the establishment of organs for the dissemination of this sort of news. Nevertheless the

new press has had a remarkable success. No attempts have been made to suppress it. Hardly any of the people whose names it makes such free use of have called the machinery of the law into play against it, while it has, of course, from the nature of the news it publishes, attracted an amount of attention altogether disproportionate to its intrinsic importance.

It is probably the success of such papers as these in England that has led to the appearance of what is termed the "society column" in our newspapers, though the "society column" does not play in our social economy precisely the same part that the society journal does in England. For somewhat the same reasons that it has never been possible to establish an American *Punch*, the long-continued existence or success here of such a paper as *Truth* would be out of the question. It is not deficiency of humor in the one case any more than it is an absence of the love of scandal and gossip in the other, and that this is so is proved by the fact that if we have no *Punch* we have *Puck*, and "funny men" and columns devoted to wit and humor by the score, and that if we have no successful society journal we have column after column of "society news." The main difference between the two is that "society journals" are much given to scandal, while "society news" is mainly a public record of what are supposed to be interesting private social events.

One of the first questions which suggest themselves to any enquiring mind with regard to the news about "society" which he finds in his daily paper is, whether "society" probably likes that he should be furnished with it or not. The popular theory in "society" is that it does not, and that it is the wicked newspapers which are to blame for the glare of publicity thrown around the balls and dinners and parties, the lawn-tennis and polo, and the births, the marriages, the funerals, and even the engagements, of the people who carry on society in London, New York, Saratoga, and Newport. It is the prying reporter who, instead of minding his own business, has been making free with the secrets of family life, and breaking down the barriers which shield it from the public gaze. This theory, however, is altogether too like the theory that the scandals in which statesmen become from time to time involved, owing to their unfortunate propensity to speculation or other forms of immorality, are due to the morbid passion of the press for criticism of public men. If society were not beginning to like to have the newspapers give full accounts of the doings of its members, if there were any general feeling in the community that privacy is something to be respected for its own sake, and that any invasion of it is a serious blow at the bonds which hold society together, "society news" would never have become an important branch of journalism.

The interest of this new journalistic development lies, to our mind, not so much in any light it may throw upon the condition of journalism as in the light it throws upon the condition of society itself. That a great change has come over the whole tone of society within a generation, few people will deny; precisely what the change is, is harder to define. Perhaps the main difference is that it has ceased to be managed by persons of ascertained and assured position, who possess a common body of inherited social tradition, and is now carried on by a vast and fluctuating horde who obtain admission to it by birth, by money, by success of any kind, or often by mere audacity. At the same time, it has tended to have less and less

connection with the serious work of the world—in England, through the gradual growth of a rich idle class amply provided with rank and money, without even the desire to affect intellectual tastes, and with no occupation but frivolous amusement; in this country, owing to the universal absorption of the great majority of the community in "business." It is easy enough to see why a love of privacy and a delicate reserve were necessary characteristics of society as it used to exist. Without these it could not preserve its corporate identity, or keep alive its traditions, or enforce its laws. But as its identity has been effaced, its traditions lost, and its laws changed or swept away by the great modern democratic wave, the reasons for privacy and reserve have disappeared. As long as it was a close corporation there was every reason why its proceedings should not be published to the world. It had the same sensitiveness on the subject that the House of Commons had in the last century on the subject of the publication of its debates. But now it would be just as absurd for it to have such a feeling as for the Corn or Cotton Exchange to resent the publication of reports of its transactions. It has, in fact, not merely lost its old love of reserve, but it has come to take a positive delight in publicity and notoriety. The very vapid and emptiness of so much of its proceedings is one cause of its liking to see them published, because it gives them an importance which they would not otherwise possess.

When Mr. and Mrs. Orlando Jones of Newport make up their minds to add a room or two to their house, the approaching event probably seems to the whole family an ordinary enough matter; but when they find all the "great dailies" announcing to the world that "Mr. Orlando Jones is contemplating the addition of a wing to his charming cottage on Bellevue Avenue; the dimensions will be," etc., etc., it is not in human nature that Mr. Jones and Mrs. Jones and all the little Joneses should not feel that they are more important people than they were before; because, as we all know, Mr. Jones, excellent man as he is, made his money by "consolidation," and is never likely to be talked about by the newspapers for either his wit or his learning. For his emergence from his original obscurity he has to thank the inventors of "society news." In the same way when a couple of dozen boys and girls have a dance, and it is announced in all the papers the next morning that Mr. Orlando Jones, jr., "led the German" with Miss "Tottie" Smith, does any one imagine that the hearts of this eminent boy and girl are filled with rage at the publicity given to their evening's entertainment? On the contrary, they like it, and are greedy to get the paper and read about themselves in it. It is to them like applause to an actor. And when toward the end of the summer, intoxicated with the charms of her society, the youthful Jones asks the charming Miss "Tottie" to marry him, do they dislike seeing the imposing announcement in several newspapers having the largest circulation in the world that a "marriage has been arranged" between them? If they do they give very few and uncertain signs of it.

Moreover, the very large class of persons who are not actually in but who are engaged in "getting in" to society find their account in these publications, as they never could have done in former times, because it furnishes them with much valuable information which they can use in a variety of ways. That they may themselves use the columns devoted to "Society News" for the purpose of

giving accounts of their own doings, and thus accelerate their social advancement, is an idea which the occasional use of the "interviewer" by accomplished statesmen for a similar purpose will suggest to many cynical minds.

MME. DE RÉMUSAT'S LETTERS.

PARIS, July 22, 1881.

THE 'Letters' of Madame de Rémusat* have not met with the same success as her 'Memoirs,' for the obvious reason that the 'Memoirs' are full of the great Napoleon, while the 'Letters' are full of Monsieur de Rémusat. The 'Memoirs' were written for the public; the 'Letters' are artless, full of details which have lost their interest. When we spoke of the 'Memoirs,' we said that in 1802 Monsieur de Rémusat became *préfet du palais* and Madame de Rémusat *dame du palais*. Rémusat was afterwards chamberlain and superintendent of the imperial theatres, a post which he occupied till 1814. Madame de Rémusat followed the Empress Josephine in her retirement after the famous divorce. Her first letters, now published, date from 1804, when Napoleon visited the provinces of the Rhine in company with the Empress. During the year 1805 the Emperor was crowned King of Italy and crossed the Alps with his whole court.

When these letters begin, the Duc d'Enghien had already been executed, and you probably remember the emotions which this event aroused in the heart of Madame de Rémusat, who was a royalist by birth. The scenes at Malmaison are described in the 'Memoirs' in a way which can hardly be forgotten. But Madame de Rémusat was young and elastic; she was attached to Josephine, and she evidently got over her instinctive feelings—we see no trace of them, at least, in the letters written soon afterwards. Madame de Rémusat had a real affection for her husband. She writes to him often in the style of a lover: "My friend, I have a presentiment that after this stormy and agitated era the remainder of our years will be easy, and that our lives will be peaceful and happy. A pretty house in the country, where we would educate our children well; a good and amiable friend there, whom one would not often leave, and *cara liberté*—what a delight! Let us work for this dear future." The court-life was partly the "work" she alludes to. The daughter of the Vergennes felt that she was earning her daily bread in a court of upstarts and parvenus. She has a peculiar way of speaking of the people of the new court, who had old names. Talleyrand is her demi-god, her protector, her great man—more, almost, than Napoleon. She constantly recommends people of the old régime for places or favors. "Do try," she writes to her husband, "to get appointments for the little De Grasse and D'Houdetot." Charles de Rémusat, who became Minister under Louis Philippe and the Republic of 1871, was then a small child. "Charles has had a funny idea: he wished to make a little drawing representing the Emperor shaving, and each of the sovereigns of Europe bringing him a part of his toilet."

When the Empire began to imitate the pomp of the oldest courts the position of the Rémusats, which had been very important under the Directory, became a little subordinate:

* *Lettres de Madame de Rémusat, 1804-1814*. Publiées par son petit-fils Paul de Rémusat. Avec un portrait. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern. 2 vols. 8vo. 1881.

"My friend," writes Madame de Rémusat on this subject, "I have always in my mind a reflection which hinders me from feeling deeply the little annoyances which vanity can cause us at the court. In fact, what have we done for the Revolution? What pledges have we given it, to use the fashionable expression? What claims have we to the distinction of the new authorities which it has created? We have suffered and moaned—a fact which interests nobody; and after this terrible break-up your situation must be envied."

This was the language of good sense, and Madame de Rémusat was quite right when she constantly urged her husband to take some administrative function, besides his functions at court. There was an old royalist in this young lady of Napoleon's court:

"You know," she writes, "my foible for Louis XIV.? The 'Memoirs' of Marmontel inspired me with a desire to read those of Saint-Simon. They amuse me, though he is very severe on the defects of his master, and very passionate in all his opinions. Notwithstanding all the evils which terminated that reign, the greatness of the century will always be imposing, and it will give such fine relief to the French name that I shall always be proud to bear it. I think of the century which is opening now, and of the great events which preceded it. However violent may have been the blows of the Revolution, whatever wounds it may have opened and painful traces it may have left, I believe—though I should not dare to say so to anybody but yourself—that our time, when it shall be seen from its true point of view, will also seem imposing to posterity, and that it will enhance still more the glory of the French name."

This is the "cri de l'âme," the true instinct of a soul hanging, as it were, between two periods, two ideals—attached to the past, and confident of the future. Such a profession of faith is all the more interesting as it has no motive. It is not made for the forum; it is a wife's confidence to her husband.

Madame de Rémusat was often alone, as the chamberlain had to remain near the Emperor. She occupied herself with the education of her son Charles, an amiable and intelligent child, who afterwards became a most distinguished man. She learned a little Latin and Greek, as many French mothers do, in order the better to teach her son. She was very intellectual, and read a great deal:

"This morning the curé of Sannois [Sannois is a little village near Montmorency, where she often lived] tells us that M. de Bonald has just published a book which proves absolutely the existence of an innate language, and which destroys the system of the Abbé Condillac. We at once unite against him; we begin a controversy; we plunge into the most profound metaphysics. We all exclaim together, in order to prove that people can think without speaking. Madame d'Houdetot tries in vain to be heard; the two Chérons, husband and wife, scream, this time in unison. The breakfast is forgotten. The curé feels that he shall be overpowered, but, like a clever man, he keeps his best weapon for the moment when he sees himself forced, and he crushes us all by saying that the Church will have people believe as he says. Then we are all silent; we only murmur between our teeth, and the curé, master of the battle-field, walks right and left, proud of having imposed silence on the bold logic of the niece of the Abbé Morellet [Mme. Chéron]."

Is not this a pretty picture?

During the great wars of the Emperor Napoleon France remained profoundly silent. The press was not free, and the public had no news except through the official "bulletins." Madame de Rémusat paints well this extraordinary state of things:

"You can imagine the effect produced by the victories and by the entry into Vienna. There was a

feeling of extreme disquietude. Many false rumors, as usual, were spreading. At last we heard the fortunate gun [the victories were always announced by the guns of the Invalides], and we learned of these incredible victories. There was joy even in the streets, with a sentiment of French vanity which struck me, because it is unfortunately not common among the Parisians. . . . Each one now arranges Europe after his own fashion; we restore or destroy empires; we make peace or prolong the war. . . . In one drawing-room we make a king of Poland, in another a king of Bavaria—God knows what! Then they come to me, they put their questions; and when I am well tired of these questions, which I cannot answer, for the good reason that I know nothing, I say: 'Mon dieu! let him who governs us alone, and wisely enjoy in the idleness of your days the comforts which the activity of his days has procured you.'"

A few days afterwards she writes that a courier woke her up at seven in the morning:

"He rang louder than usual. . . . My whole household is at once in commotion; they all enter my room, shouting 'Peace! peace!' I still doubt; but I learn that last night in Paris it was announced in all the theatres that the first proposals were made by the Emperor of Austria, and that we are now treating. You can imagine the general joy. In the streets people embrace each other."

This joy was caused by false news; peace was only made a little while afterwards. Such was the life of a Frenchwoman at that time—long intervals of doubt and silence and fear, and then sudden outbursts of joy and enthusiasm. When the peace of 1805 was made, Princess Louis Bonaparte sent for Madame de Rémusat, who found her laughing and crying at the same time. Her first word was: "He commanded in person—he completely beat the two emperors." This was her short account of the battle of Austerlitz.

"The French," says Madame de Rémusat, "are a little like women—they are very impatient. It is true that in this campaign the Emperor has spoiled us, and no lover has ever been more desirous of satisfying the will of his mistress than his Majesty of contenting our wishes. 'Will you have a prompt march? Well, my army was at Boulogne. I have taken it in three weeks to Germany. You wish a town to be taken? There is Ulm, which has capitulated. You are not satisfied? Well, there are still other victories; then there is Vienna, which you wanted; and, finally, a pitched battle.'"

Madame de Rémusat must have been a most agreeable talker. Her letters have often the conversational tone, and she can relate the smallest incidents in a taking manner. For instance: "I had Friday last at dinner Madame de Vintimille, M. Pasquier [who became chancellor of France], the Abbé Morellet, and Picard [a dramatic author]. M. Pasquier was *en vogue*—everything was good to him. We ended in our usual quarrel over La Rochefoucauld and La Bruyère. You know how this question always excites Madame de Vintimille; the abbé screamed as if he was twenty years old; I screamed as I could; M. Bertrand said constantly, 'Allow me, allow me' [*permettez, permettez*]; but we did not allow," and so forth. This lively way of speaking of trifles makes you go through the two volumes without ennui. Here and there you find a bon-mot. She announces, for instance, to Monsieur de Rémusat that the widow of Lavoisier (the famous chemist who died on the guillotine in 1793) is married again to an American savant, M. de Rumford: "Nothing is wanting in the match except the *calorique*." Madame de Rémusat was a great reader; she liked particularly the great writers of the seventeenth century. One day she obliges Talleyrand, the ex-Bishop of Autun, to read her aloud a sermon of Massillon's. She was

not devout; she had become a woman in a time when the churches were shut, but we see her by degrees grow more and more religious. Her religion was a sort of Christian philosophy; her mind was full of tolerance, of ease—it was, perhaps, a little loose. She had the instincts of the eighteenth century in her; but she had been struck by the Revolution and by its horrors, and she revolved towards the old-fashioned ideas of the old régime as rapidly as her connection with Bonaparte would allow. On the whole, she was a very interesting person, full of sincerity, of *naturel*, fond of all intellectual pursuits, fond of the world, but passionately fond of her family.

THE VATICAN AND THE EXTENSION OF THE SUFFRAGE IN ITALY.

ROME, July 25, 1881.

A REGULAR "leap in the dark" is this new Reform of the Suffrage Bill voted by the Chamber of Deputies at the close of the last session, after ten years' debate, we may say, taking into account all the bills presented, rejected, or shelved during that period. Until yesterday, out of a population of 30,000,000 (say seven millions of males above twenty-one years of age) but little more than half a million were entitled to elect the representatives of the people to the national parliament. Of these scarcely more than half availed themselves of the privilege most highly prized by Anglo-Saxon nations—30, 40, 50 per cent. only depositing their votes in the urn on ordinary occasions; 62 per cent. in 1876, when the great fight between Conservatives and Liberals (or, as they say here, between Moderates and Progressists) left the latter victorious after sixteen years of exclusive power enjoyed by the former. Often have I tried to account to myself for this abstention, and never satisfactorily. Many people set it down to Pio Nono's injunction to all good Catholics to be "neither electors nor elected"; but the abstainers belong, as a majority, to a class who neither fast nor feast at the dictates of the Church. Some, of course, act in accordance with the instructions emanating from the Vatican, even as the "Puritan republicans" abstain from taking the oath or inducing others to take the oath to monarchy. But these "abstainers on principle," seeing that the world goes on the same without them, and that of nothing nothing can come, have each year grown fewer and fewer; the republican abstainers of to-day you may count on your ten fingers.

The cause lies rather in doubt as to the utility of exercising the vote. "Why lose time and take trouble to vote for Tizio rather than Cajo?" ask many. "The King remains the same, the laws the same, the taxes go on increasing, whoever sits on the ministerial benches." The repeal of the odious grist-tax on the inferior cereals made no impression on the people of the northern provinces, as there, unfortunately, maize is the staple food of the population; but nothing else has occurred to distinguish Right from Left, "progress" from regress, and the witty ditty of the Venetians gains ever fuller truth:

"Quando Marco governava
Si pranzava e si cenava;
Quando l'Austria governò
Si pranzò, non si cenò;
Or che l'Italia ci governa
C'è la fame sempiterna."

That is to say: Under the republic we dined and supped; under Austria we dined only; now that Italy reigns we fast perpetually. And there is no denying that materially the working classes in city

and country "fared better when they were worse off," as taxes are doubled, provisions likewise; wages alone have not risen in proportion.

For the last two years deputies, ex-deputies, and republicans have held meetings and carried on a regular propagandism to instil into the people the belief that universal suffrage is the panacea for all existing evils, and the belief has penetrated to the brains of the workmen of the cities. The new law is, in fact, the recognition of universal suffrage, as all males above twenty-one years of age who can sign their names are entitled to be registered on the lists and to deposit their votes in the urn. Henceforward it suffices that a man sign in the presence of a notary the requisition printed or written by others, and he becomes a registered elector; the notary never to receive more than half a franc for witnessing and legalizing the signature. Clearly, therefore, every man who desires to vote can do so at the next general elections, having ample time between now and then to learn to sign his name. The opponents of the law hope that the Senate will throw it out, or at least increase the tax to be paid as land-tax or income-tax from ten to twenty francs per annum. But this is hoping against hope, as the Left has already "created" one hundred Senators and holds the menace of other forty "creatures" over the heads of that august body. King Humbert prides and piques himself on being a constitutional king *jusqu'au bout des ongles*; hence he will sign and seal whatsoever law be passed by the two Houses of Parliament.

The desperate leap, therefore, is taken; but into what utter darkness! The first question that arises is, Will the three millions now admitted to vote exercise their right with greater zeal than did the half million in the past? On the theory that a new broom sweeps clean, yes. On the other hand, it remains to be seen whether the half-savage, wholly-ignorant peasant population of the South will ever even hear that by learning to sign their name they may vote for a member of Parliament. The same doubt applies to the thousands of artisans in cities, such as Naples, who of governors and governed know only the recruiting sergeant and the tax-gatherer. Unless black, white, and red politicians set themselves for their own purposes to instruct, drill, and discipline the masses in the duties and beauties of the vote, we doubt their exercising the newly-conferred right.

What will be the conduct of the Vatican? is the next question. Pio Nono, suddenly bereft of his temporal power, learnt but slowly how much was implied in his cruel jest to the commander of the French troops who, when bidding him adieu, regretted that Rome was to be deprived of the protection of France: "*Ça ne nous fait rien. La France a perdu ses dents*" (Sedan). But only when French teeth were set firmly in the flesh of the Roman populations could he boast himself their master; when *Sedan* relaxed that grip, the prey escaped for ever. Pio Nono to his dying hour expected the Catholic hosts of Christendom to punish the "sacreligious usurper" and restore to the Pope his own. Not so Leo XIII. A long residence as nuncio at the court of Belgium and the sharp, bright air of his beloved Perugian mountains had cleared his brain of all such cobwebs. On the day of his ascension he decided to bless the people from the outer balcony of St. Peter's, and take possession of the basilica of San Giovanni in Laterano. He saw clearly that the temporal power was gone for aye; that no Power in Europe would

unsheathe a sword in its behalf. But he saw also that by accepting under protest the *fait accompli*, by revoking the edict "*Nè eletti nè elettori*," he could regain for the Church a large portion of the spiritual and moral power forfeited by his predecessor. Had not the Jesuits by sheer material force, and their satellites by their prophecies that any concession would be the ruin of the Church, prevented Cardinal Pecci from acting according to the dictates of his judgment and his conscience, to-day universities and colleges, secondary and elementary schools, communal and provincial councils and coffers would be in the hands of the clergy and their adherents. But "the gods love Young Italy," and not the old Papacy. The golden moment was lost. Leo XIII. shut himself up in the Vatican, and is now, like all prisoners and exiles, an irritable, suspicious man, beset with sick fancies and distrustful of all; leaning now to this, now to that counsellor; never able to see things and judge events and circumstances in their true light and comparative proportions.

Still, he holds to his first conviction that conflicts between Church and state are worse than useless, ending ever in the defeat of the former. His conduct in Germany and France proves this, and the conflict in Belgium was none of his seeking. In Italy all the clergy of the northern provinces, and also of Sicily, assure him that unless the people are allowed to take their share in the affairs of the nation they will leave religion in the lurch and attend to their secular affairs. Leo XIII. is worn out with the daily, hourly contest; broken down with the tremendous responsibility laid on his shoulders. So he has adopted a half measure, saying: "I neither enjoin nor forbid. With secular and political matters the Church has nothing to do; let each man act up to his own conscience." Then, besides this, special injunctions are sent to bishops and priests and parish priests to see that all Catholics entitled to vote *be at least inscribed on the voting registers*.

The late fracas attendant on the reburial of the old Pope, exaggerated by the Catholics and palavered about by "own correspondents" to London newspapers, stood the Jesuits in good stead. A madder act than to allow a Catholic demonstration in the streets of Rome around the hearse of the man who for twenty-one years oppressed and cursed the Romans from his throne of bayonets, was never committed by any government. It is a wonder that all ended as it did; but the present Pope does not see this side of the question. "If," say the Jesuits to him, "the dead body of Pio Nono cannot pass through the streets without insult, what can your living Holiness expect?" And a glimmer of hope that the Powers of Europe will combine to guarantee his spiritual powers has revived in the "prisoner's" bosom. Hence the question of Catholics voting or abstaining is again in abeyance.

What will be the consequences? What number of Catholic voters will poll? For whom will they vote? No one in his senses would venture to answer either of these questions. From what I have seen of the workmen in Venetian Lombardy I should say that they would choose radical deputies. Of the peasants it is far more difficult to judge. I hear a great deal of grumbling at the priests for exacting tithes—"forties" and "fifties"—for never visiting the sick or assisting the poor, for compelling the women to "glean" and the men to "thresh corn for the Madonna," when they and their children have barely poleata to keep body and

soul together; but until the present House is dissolved and the results of the next general elections are known we can only say, "*Chi vivrà vedrà*"—Who lives will see. In Queen Margaret the Pope finds his staunchest ally, his strongest encourager to reconciliation. Then, again, the Vatican coffers are well-nigh empty, and that tempting three and a half millions of francs ready for payment to order. There is the plea, too, that the Socialists and Communists gain all the seceders from the Church. So it may be that universal suffrage, which has effected such strange and opposite results, may effect the reconciliation between Church and state in Italy. M.

Correspondence.

THE EMANCIPATION PEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Allow me to correct a slight error in the communication of Mr. Whittemore, in the *Nation* August 4, 1881. He says the pen with which President Lincoln wrote his Proclamation of Emancipation was presented to the late Mr. George Livermore by the President. In a letter to me written by Mr. Livermore, and enclosing both a photograph and a pencil-drawing of the famous pen, for my use in preparing my 'Pictorial Field-Book of the Civil War,' it is stated that the pen was presented by the President to Mr. Sumner at the latter's request, and by him presented to Mr. Livermore.

The pen with which that ever-memorable Proclamation was written was a common steel one, of the kind known as the "Washington." The handle was a common cedar stick—the whole affair as plain and unostentatious as the President himself.

BENSON J. LOSSING.

THE RIDGE, DOVER PLAINS, N. Y., August 8.

THE PEABODY LIBRARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "W. M. C.," in writing about the Peabody Library, seems to labor under a series of misapprehensions regarding it which could have arisen only from lack of familiarity with its workings. No one who is at all acquainted with the large number of rare and valuable books which it contains, or who knows anything at all about the constant accessions to its stores, could possibly style the Peabody Library a "fossil institution." The Peabody was not designed to be a circulating library, nor to furnish its readers with books which might be easily obtained at any bookstore. It was the founder's intention to bring together in a convenient building those books which, either from their rarity or from their extreme cost, are quite beyond the reach of persons of moderate means. To be plain, sir, it was meant for those who, though poor in pocket, are rich in brains—not a very numerous class in any place.

In regard to the card-catalogues, it is sufficient to say that *practical* librarians have found the system the only one of any use in a large and growing library. The "other formalities" consist simply in writing upon a slip of paper provided for the purpose the names of the books desired, and signing one's name to the order. That is all.

It seems to me that the library is open quite late

enough, both in summer and winter, for any mechanic or business man who has been working hard all day. It would be interesting to know how many of either class care to use a "learned library" at any time.

Is it not somewhat of a contradiction to speak of a situation as almost inaccessible, and in the same breath to condemn it as being too fashionable? There is an air, too, of charming innocence in the manner in which students and school-teachers are coupled with "persons of infinite leisure."

Without opening up the vexed question of "Sunday closing," it will be sufficient to say that the Peabody Library, in not remaining open Sundays and holidays, follows a custom universal in this city.—Very respectfully,

JOHN H. BLACKLOCK.

BALTIMORE, Aug. 4, 1881.

THE PRESIDENT'S DISABILITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I send you the following in consequence of observing in the Baltimore *Sun* of this morning the statement that "Government officials are beginning to talk about the embarrassment . . . in consequence of the continued inability of the President to perform any of the functions of his office."

Mr. Madison's report of the 'Debates in the Federal Convention of 1787' shows that after "the proceedings of the Convention" had been "referred to a committee to prepare and report a Constitution conformable thereto," the Convention on July 26 unanimously adjourned till Monday, August 6, "that the Committee of Detail might have time to prepare and report the Constitution."

In the report delivered on August 6, by Mr. Rutledge, from that committee, article x, section 2, after a provision as to the President of the United States, for his removal from office, concluded as follows:

"In case of his removal as aforesaid, death, resignation, or *disability to discharge the powers and duties of his office*, the President of the Senate shall exercise those powers and duties until another President of the United States be chosen, or *until the disability of the President be removed*."

August 27, there were objections to this clause and a motion to postpone it.

"Mr. Dickinson seconded the postponement, remarking that it was too vague. What is the extent of the term 'disability,' and who is to be the judge of it?"

"The postponement was agreed to *nem con*."

August 31, such parts of the Constitution as had been postponed and such parts of reports as had not been acted on were referred to a committee of a member from each State. The Committee of Eleven made, September 4, a partial report, which contemplated that a Vice-President should be elected, and that the latter part of section 2, article x, should read as follows:

"In case of his removal as aforesaid, death, absence, resignation, or *inability to discharge the powers or duties of his office*, the Vice-President shall exercise those powers and duties until another President be chosen, or *until the inability of the President be removed*."

On September 7 was an insertion of words enabling the legislature to "declare by law what officer of the United States shall act as President

in case of the death, resignation, or disability of the President and Vice-President." In lieu of words importing that "such officer shall act accordingly *until the time of electing a President shall arrive*," Mr. Madison moved to substitute "*until such disability be removed or a President shall be elected*"; which motion was seconded by Mr. Gouverneur Morris and agreed to.

A committee was appointed by ballot to revise the style of and arrange the articles which had been agreed to. That committee on September 12 made its report, containing the following words:

"*In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may, by law, provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability both of the President and Vice-President; declaring what officer shall then act as President; and such officer shall act accordingly until the disability be removed, or until the period for choosing another President arrive.*"

The last words, "or until the period for choosing another President arrive," were on September 15 changed into "*or a President shall be elected*" (according to the vote of September 7). So the Constitution was signed, and so it now is in the sixth section of the second article.

Although in case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death or resignation, the power and duties of the office would devolve on the Vice-President, and he would act accordingly until a President should be elected, yet they do not necessarily devolve upon him in the other case for so great a length of time. If, merely because or *in case of the President's inability* to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, such devolving may cease when the President's inability shall cease. The constitution of Virginia of June 29, 1776, provided as to the council of state, that "they shall annually choose out of their own members a president, who, in case of the death, *inability, or necessary absence of the governor* from the government, shall act as lieutenant-governor." Under that constitution there was frequently a case of such inability or necessary absence that the president of the council acted as lieutenant-governor; and when such inability or necessary absence ceased, the governor acted again.

C. R.

BALTIMORE, August 8, 1881.

OVERLAND RAILROAD RATES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Two paragraphs in the *Nation* of July 14 (No. 837, pp. 22, 23) indicate that you are but imperfectly informed as to abuses on the overland railroads. As you appear willing to aid in remedying them I give you some of the facts. The system of unlawful freight discriminations alluded to has not been recently revived; it has never for a moment been suspended since its formal introduction in the summer of 1878, but has been constantly enlarged and extended down to the present time, when it is more stringent and oppressive than ever before. The *modus operandi* is this: By arrangement between the Central and Union Pacific Railroad Companies the rates of Western-bound freights are fixed by the Union, and those of Eastern-bound by the Central Company. This arrangement is supposed to be nominal only; a sort of legal fiction

to enable each concern to refer complaining parties to a "Mr. Jorkins," two thousand miles off; but that is the form of it. The Union Pacific Company has a printed classification of merchandise, and printed rates of freight for each class from New York and other Eastern points to San Francisco, ranging from \$6 per 100 lbs. for first-class to \$1 50 per 100 lbs. for Class D. These are declared to be the regular rates. But the company enters into contracts with the merchants here to carry for them at *special* rates, much reduced from these regular ones, on condition that the merchant shall import all his goods by their line; not only such as are usually sent by rail or *via* the Isthmus, but also such as have heretofore, and naturally, come by sea around Cape Horn; and they make him bind himself to ship by their road, and by such connecting roads as their general freight-agent shall, from time to time, designate, all goods purchased by or for him, or shipped by or consigned to him, by his procurement, directly or indirectly, or with his knowledge and assent. The contracts declare that their object is to give to the Union Pacific Company the transportation of all goods *bought, sold, dealt in, or handled by* the merchant; and any act of his tending to defeat this object constitutes a breach, so that he cannot even buy in open market goods imported otherwise than by rail, and this rule is enforced. They also provide that these special rates are for his own exclusive benefit, and he must not allow the use of his name or shipping marks by any one else. The freight must all be forwarded to Omaha by such carriers as are designated by the Union Pacific Railroad Company. They reserve the option (which is always exercised) of way-billing the goods and collecting freights according to the printed rates, agreeing to return the difference, on presentation of vouchers to the Central Pacific's freight-agent at San Francisco, after the lapse of a reasonable time—say thirty days—for transmission, verification, etc.

All our leading merchants have been forced to enter into contracts of this description; the man who attempts to import his coarse goods by sea, relying on the rail for such as need more rapid transportation, has to pay such rates on the latter that he cannot compete with his neighbors. He cannot even buy his coarse goods in open market here if they shall have come round the Horn, for that would defeat the "*bought, sold, dealt in, or handled by*" clause. Such goods and their importers are tabooed and "boycotted," and the merchant who touches them without leave of the railroad company can have no freight transported overland except at ruinous rates; even at such he is liable to casual delays, difficulties, and obstructions which, being unable to account for, his unregenerate nature attributes to malicious design.

The result is that ships obtain little or no freights from Eastern ports here; they have to come here in ballast, or half full, to load wheat for Europe, and our people are compelled to pay on their produce sent abroad a freight to cover the expense of the round trip. The standing forced loan exacted from our merchants, without interest, by collecting and after thirty days repaying the difference between printed and contract rates, may amount to half a million dollars; it operates oppressively to individuals, but to the community is of minor importance. But the tax levied on our exports in the form of enhanced freights to Europe is a monstrous and shocking wrong. In the absence of full statistics it is impossible to compute its amount,

but it is probably equivalent to about four dollars per ton on the exportable crop of the State. San Francisco, under this nefarious system, has degenerated from the rank and position of a maritime city open to the commerce of the world to that of an interior town some two thousand miles west of St. Louis, approachable only over deserts and mountains.

With these facts before you, which are known to every well-informed man in San Francisco (except, of course, the Railroad Commissioners), you can understand why the tide of prosperity which has spread over the rest of the Union during the last few years has never yet reached California, why all business has been depressed and real estate has been steadily falling in value ever since the overland railroad was completed. Perhaps, too, you will regard with more leniency the mistaken hostility to corporations (especially railroads) which has found expression in some of our recent legislation. Grant that it is unphilosophical, ill-directed, stupid, and in some respects unjust—that was not its intention; but people who have been so long and sorely oppressed as ours have been by the present monopoly cannot always reason coolly or justly as to the remedy, and in their anger seize any weapon at hand, careless whom else they may hurt, provided they can inflict a blow on their chief enemy.

You suggest an appeal to the courts—at least, so I understand your words “proceeded against with all vigor”; but who can proceed against them, and how? I defy any lawyer to point out a remedy, under existing laws, of the slightest value to the individual aggrieved. Our Railroad Commissioners, if so disposed, could doubtless do much on behalf of the public, if not to break up, at least to expose, the wrong. But the eyes of justice, you know, are bandaged, and they can only know what is officially communicated to them and duly proved by witnesses, and their governing majority has just completed a set of rules for proceedings before them well calculated to aid them in remaining ignorant of all public abuses of the kind. No individual merchant dare sue, complain, or even let it be known that he is dissatisfied, lest he should be straightway put at a ruinous disadvantage with his competitors in trade. His business would be broken up before he could get his first case sent to trial, and his family might starve while he was awaiting the result of new trials and appeals. The way of a man who enters into litigation with a company that keeps all the leading law-firms under standing retainers, most of the leading journals by some means quieted, and which finds in legislators, railroad commissioners, and auditors of railroad accounts its serviceable friends, is too hard to be voluntarily pursued by any man in business.

There is but one remedy for this monster grievance which oppresses the whole Pacific coast. The power so to oppress must be absolutely taken from the companies. For this purpose it is not necessary to establish rates of freight by law; but the law should lay down a rule for their establishment by the companies, and, once established, they should be made public, and no deviation permitted. The operation of the roads in all their departments should be kept under constant and vigilant supervision by Government, and any violation of law by railroad officials should be punished as a public offence. Actions for damages and like private remedies are wholly inefficient. Congress has ample power to remedy all evils in the over-

land system of transportation, for it is all built on Congressional legislation; and its just control of that system, judiciously exercised, could not fail to be attended with most beneficial results in the whole system of connecting roads.

The first thing needed is a Congressional committee of investigation, with ample powers and means to examine thoroughly into all existing abuses in the management of the Union and Central Pacific roads, and their leased and associated lines. The *Nation* cannot do a better public service than by aiding and enforcing through its columns the demand for such an investigation.

JOHN T. DOYLE.

SAN FRANCISCO, July 28, 1881.

DIVORCE STATISTICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I ask space to reply to the letter of Rev. Mr. Dike in this week's *Nation*, criticising a portion of my article on the “Divorce Question” in the *International Review* for August. When I wrote my satire, “Who is your Wife?” I prepared an appendix citing the authorities, but as the work was intended for the general public and the appendix would have given it a “heavy appearance,” it was omitted for reasons which publishers of fiction will appreciate. As I expected, however, many critics, including members of my own profession, ventured to doubt some of the statements contained in the book. I therefore prepared the *Review* article to show that so far was the fiction from being an exaggeration that it fell short of the actual facts, and to offer a remedy for the evils set forth in it. Incidentally, I referred to Mr. Dike and his “statistics.”

Mr. Dike says that I should have said that there was “one divorced person, not one divorce, to every six hundred and seventy-nine of the population in Maine in 1878, and not in 1880 as he has it.” If Mr. Dike will look at the article again he will see that the statement is not made by me at all, but is quoted as having been made by ex-Governor Dingley. On Mr. Dike's explanation I was therefore right in criticising it; and if the ex-governor has been incorrectly reported, and Mr. Dike's figures are the correct ones, it does not in the least affect or alter the point of my criticism. The point is that these “statistics” leave out of consideration the fact, well known to every lawyer, that many of these divorces are obtained by persons who are not *bona-fide* citizens of the State where they are granted, but who resort to its laws and tribunals because, owing to the difference in laws, they could not procure a divorce in their own State; and, consequently, to charge these divorces to the actual inhabitants of the State where they were procured is to mislead, and present an incorrect picture of the State's morality. If Mr. Dike were a lawyer in active practice, instead of a minister without the means of judging from actual experience and observation, he would not regard my opinion as to the character of the majority of these divorces as so “incredible.” He would know, what is more, that very often the “residence” which citizens of one State take up in another—New York and Connecticut, for instance—in order to procure a divorce in the latter, is merely *nominal*. But he says: “New Hampshire that same year had one divorce to every fourteen hundred and thirty-nine inhabitants. But if, as this writer declares on the next page, foreign parties are practically excluded from the courts of that State, we must doubt the

fact he asserts of Maine.” (The fact was intended as a general assertion.) Mr. Dike seems to think he has me here. Let us see what my article does state. In answer to the broad assertion that the cause of the increase of divorce is loose laws, I explicitly say, what Mr. Dike admits, that “the increase has been as great in New Hampshire as anywhere else, while the law in that State has been changed but little in a century.” Then I state that New Hampshire has a doctrine peculiar to herself, that the *delictum* must occur there to confer jurisdiction on her courts, “and that when the offence is committed when both parties are out of the court's jurisdiction it is no ground for a divorce.” A moment's reflection should show Mr. Dike that this is very different from the statement he attributes to me.

The reference to France was made by me on the authority of Bishop, and also expresses my personal opinion. Mr. Dike will find it in vol. i. § 44 of the fifth edition. If it is not in the edition lately published, it is because since the first publication of his work Mr. Bishop, in the subsequent editions, has curtailed the argumentative and historical portions, and made it more purely a text-book. Lawyers are severely enough taxed for books without having to purchase every new edition. As to the repeal of the “omnibus” clause in Connecticut, I do not know how far the repealing act extends; I do know that the grounds for a divorce in that State are liberal enough to cover almost every case without it. The clause, according to Mr. Dike, conferred general jurisdiction on the judges to grant divorces in their discretion. According to Dr. Woolsey, it was, “any such misconduct as permanently destroys the happiness of the petitioner, and defeats the purpose of the marriage relation, shall be sufficient to entitle to a divorce.” This might be repealed without taking away the discretion from the judges. Mr. Bishop, in the last edition of his work, does not *imply*, as Mr. Dike puts it, that this discretion still exists; he explicitly asserts it (Bishop, sixth edition, note to § 27.)

I am not surprised that Mr. Dike finds it difficult to reconcile Dr. Dwight's statements with his own statistics or the facts. But, having thus practically admitted the justice of my criticism, I am surprised that he should declare me at fault in my reasoning. He finds fault with my statement that, if his statistics were correct, in 1880 in Connecticut one in less than every twenty-five married pairs should have been divorced, and then says that for many years before 1879 the ratio of divorces to marriages was 1 to 10.4. Does he mean that one out of every ten marriages resulted in a divorce? If so, he makes it worse than I did; if not, what does he mean? The absurdity of the statement is too patent to need demonstration. He says that my assertion that “divorce is no more frequent among the lower classes than it is among the higher” is not true of New England, unless in exceptional localities. Does he mean by “higher” some particular arrogant “upper tendom,” or does he use it as I do, as distinguishing between the educated and uneducated? If the latter, I am afraid he will not find many lawyers who will agree with him. But my assertion is general, and not particularly applied to New England. As Mr. Dike is not a Bostonian, I believe, he will probably be willing to concede, when his attention is drawn to the fact, that New England is not the United States, and that those of us who were not fortunate enough to be born in that section are still entitled to be counted in the nation's statistics, and are not mere appendixes.

Mr. Dike, referring to the responsibility of New York and other States for divorces in New England, says "the proof of this does not appear in the statistics." I should suppose not. I have not the remotest idea in what part of a court's records Mr. Dike would look to find it. But when he admits that probably "ten or fifteen per cent. of the divorces in New England in 1878 were of persons who came here for the purpose," and "for every one coming East probably two or more go West," he admits the force of my criticism that these "statistics" are not correct in the sense in which they are intended to be conveyed; for here, according to himself, would be from twenty to thirty per cent. of the divorces charged to the citizens of States which should not be credited with them. Dr. Woolsey, when asked in which State divorces are most frequent, replied: "I will not undertake to say, *so imperfect are the statistics.*" Yet Mr. Dike seems to regard his figures as infallible. It is a very simple thing to make a literally true statement convey a very different impression to the mind of the general reader, and, notwithstanding the old saying, figures are often the most mendacious of liars. I am sorry to have destroyed or impaired the effect of his "statistics," which he undoubtedly believes to be absolutely correct, but this is an iconoclastic age, and even the story of Blue-beard is now regarded as fiction. He will have great difficulty in making any lawyer believe that of those persons who seek other States to procure a divorce "more" of them do so to avoid publicity than because they cannot secure their end in their own State. He would probably welcome the Catholic rule (which makes France so moral) of indissolubility, if he did not adopt its mongrel offspring, having no divine or other authority, of divorce *a mensa et thoro*. Probably he joins with others in criticising my statement that the world always has been and is continually improving. One critic says that if this is so the world must have been very bad; but if it is not so I do not see how civilization could ever have advanced. He is probably one of the class referred to on page 141 of the *Review*.

The point he discusses does not, as he kindly admits, affect the merits of my article in the discussion of its main question; it simply arose incidentally. But, while I am not infallible, am open to correction, and welcome criticism as the best of teachers, I fear that Mr. Dike's letter will fail to convince me that my criticism of his and other statistics is erroneous on his own showing.

WALDORF H. PHILLIPS.

NEW YORK, Aug. 6, 1881.

Notes.

J. R. OSGOOD & Co. will publish early next month, as a holiday gift-book, Owen Meredith's 'Lucile,' with upwards of 160 wood-engravings after designs by prominent American artists. The form will be large octavo.—Among the forthcoming juvenile publications of Cassell & Co. will be the 'Little Folks' Album of Music' and 'Old Proverbs with New Faces,' the latter illustrated by Lucy Lawson, reputed "a most successful rival of Kate Greenaway."—A. C. Armstrong & Son have in press two juvenile gift-books, both abounding in colored illustrations, viz., 'Shaksperian Tales in Verse,' by Mrs. Valentine, and 'The May-Blossom; or, The Princess and her People.'—A limited fac simile reprint of the first edition of Burton's 'Book-

Hunter' will be issued next month, with an added index, by Robert A. Tripple, Philadelphia.—'Pioneer Life in the West,' by J. B. Walker, is announced by Henry A. Sumner & Co.—A. D. F. Randolph & Co. add to the New Testament literature a little volume, 'Where the Old and the New Versions Differ,' the changes only being indicated in parallel columns. The complete texts thus placed side by side would seem preferable for convenience of comparison.—E. Steiger & Co. have now issued their pedagogic abstract of Kiddle and Schem's 'Cyclopædia of Education,' under the title of 'Dictionary of Education and Instruction.' It makes a duodecimo volume of somewhat more than 300 pages.—A fragmentary bibliography of "Educational Journalism" in this country is to be found in the address bearing this title delivered by Mr. C. W. Bardeen at Saratoga last month, and published at Syracuse by the author. The subject is a rather dreary one, but is treated in a readable, not to say lively, manner. Of existing journals devoted to education—the whole number has been legion—the average age is about three and a half years.—The *Penn Monthly* for August contains an interesting biographical sketch of the late Prof. S. S. Haldeman. He was, it appears, related not only to the British general, Sir Frederick Haldimand, who was stationed here prior to the Revolution, and afterwards became governor of the Province of Quebec, but to Mrs. Marcet (Jane Haldimand), an early popularizer of science, to whose 'Conversations' Faraday acknowledged his indebtedness.—The August issue of the *Magazine of American History* is a "Washington number." There is an excellent brief account, by Berthold Fernow, of Washington's military family during the war, and much kindred matter. The noteworthy illustrations are a fac-simile of a pen-and-ink sketch of Washington made about 1790 (as is supposed, by Benj. H. Latrobe, the architect of the U. S. Capitol); and a charming specimen of the St.-Mémoin portrait-etchings, namely, of Dr. James McHenry, of Baltimore, Washington's military secretary, and subsequent Secretary of War.—A letter from Mr. Joseph Thacher Clarke, of the Assos expedition, on the "Architectural Aspects of the Chian Earthquake," is printed in the *American Architect* for July 30. It is an admirable and not too harrowing account by a highly intelligent observer. Mr. Clarke cannot forbear alluding to the effect on any of our great cities of an earthquake no severer than that of 1755 (the *Architect* has it 1775) in New England.—The *Bibliographer*, a periodical uniform in size and style with the *Antiquary*, is to be published by Elliot Stock, London, in the autumn.—The premium plate which each subscriber to *L'Art* obtains this year is a rather off-hand etching, by Champollion, of a hackneyed Spanish-Roman conventionality in *genre* by Casanova, in size 18½ x 15 inches. It by no means represents the quality of work which the readers of *L'Art* are familiar with, and may expect to find in each number.—*Polybiblion* states that the French National Library acquired last year a sealed box of letters by Alfred de Musset, not to be opened till 1910.—A plan is on foot in Belgium for offering a testimonial to Hendrik Conscience, the novelist, on the appearance of his hundredth volume. Although Conscience is the most zealous defender of Flanders and Flemish manners, and has done more than any writer to serve the Flemish language and spread the love of Flemish literature among his countrymen, yet his writings are as popular in Hol-

land as in Belgium, and it is expected that the subscription will be willingly taken up in both countries.—The African Club of Naples has published in a neat pamphlet a lecture recently delivered by Count Luigi Pennazzi, describing his explorations in Eastern Sudan, or the vast territory between the Nile and the Red Sea. It opens with a feeling tribute to the late Romolo Gessi (Gordon's lieutenant, it will be remembered), who died in the arms of Count Pennazzi and his companion, Capt. Bessone, and was buried at Suez. A subscription is being raised to remove his body to Italy. Count Pennazzi describes him as wholly devoted to the extirpation of slavery and the slave-trade, and says his name will yet be written in letters of gold beside those of Franklin, Washington, and Garibaldi.—After a tedious intermission, the fifth number of Professor Daniel Sanders's 'Ergänzungswörterbuch der deutschen Sprache' has at length made its appearance. It is to be hoped that the new publisher will be more prompt with the rest of the work.

—We have been requested by Messrs. A. & C. Black to publish the following letter, which speaks for itself:

EDINBURGH, July 22, 1881.

SIR: My attention has just been called to the July number of a newspaper published by you entitled *Stoddart's Review*. This journal contains a notice of various alterations made in the American "reprint" of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' issued by you, and it also contains an advertisement announcing the volume thus tampered with as being edited by me.

I must ask you at once to withdraw my name from every such advertisement, as you are well aware I have neither knowledge, control, nor supervision of your reprint, and that I repudiate all connection with it.

As you have publicly advertised my name in this unjustifiable manner, I shall consider this letter as equally public.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

THOS. S. BAYNES.

MR. J. M. STODDART, Philadelphia.

—The twenty-ninth volume of the Proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, being the record of the meeting held at Boston in August last, is just issued—in two parts royal octavo, of about four hundred pages each. The Boston session was in all respects a notable one. The continuous attendance upon the meetings of the Association amounted to nearly one thousand persons, including members and invited guests. About two hundred and eighty papers were presented to the Association. As usual, a good share of the more important papers appear in the Proceedings by title simply (more than two-thirds of the entire number are so given), only a small portion of those here published in full having any considerable significance. It is not easy to account for this—doubtless it is owing in great part to the delay in printing the volume, the best papers appearing meanwhile elsewhere. A good many of these papers are published in the *American Journal of Science*, but a very large proportion are never heard of after the simple oral presentation before the Association. Of the papers presented on mathematics and physics, 19 are printed and 63 not; in chemistry, 20 printed and 19 not; in microscopy, 6 printed and 8 not; in natural history, 21 printed and 40 not; in entomology, 8 printed and 21 not; and in anthropology, 11 printed and 37 not. The membership of the Association is increasing in magnitude with great rapidity; the list now contains 1,555 names enrolled—1,149 being members, and 406 fellows. Over 600 new

members were elected at Boston, and nearly 50 members were advanced to be fellows. With this unprecedented growth it would be impossible that all should be actively engaged in the direct advancement of scientific interests: probably a goodly majority would hold equal rank with Clifford's "second class of persons" in the British Association, "who are engaged in work upon what are called scientific subjects, but who in general do not, and are not expected to, think about these subjects in a scientific manner." The Boston volume closes with a few brief notes on the "Scientific Institutions of Boston and Vicinity." The Association will meet next week at Cincinnati, the chief officers being Dr. L. H. Morgan, of Rochester, the retiring President, and Professor G. J. Brush, of New Haven, the President-elect.

—The Census Office has published, as Bulletin No. 223, a preliminary report on the anthracite coal productions of Pennsylvania during the census year, by Professor R. Pumpelly. Anthracite is now mined in eight counties, an increase of two since 1870—namely, Lackawanna, which was formerly a part of Luzerne, and Susquehanna, in which one small colliery has recently been started. The number of collieries has been increased from 225 in 1870 to 273 in 1880. The average number of hands to each colliery has increased from 235 to 250, or only 6.4 per cent., while the average product per colliery has gone up from 69,320 to 100,488 tons, or 45 per cent. of increase. The actual output is estimated to have been 67.23 per cent., or about two-thirds of the possible output—in other words, the mines were worked up to two-thirds of their capacity, with the present force, under a steady demand. The value of the output was 26.86 per cent. of the capital. The total merchantable product was 27,433,329 tons, valued at the mines at \$1 47 per ton. In 1870 the product was stated as 15,596,257 tons, showing an increase of 75.9 per cent. Owing to the decreased price of coal, however, the value of the product has increased but 5.25 per cent. This difference in price is, on the other hand, in large part accounted for by the depreciation of the currency in 1870. In addition to the merchantable product given above, 83 collieries report 7,060,447 tons of impure coal and dust, which is at present unmerchantable. This is 34.8 per cent. of their product, and, if the same proportion holds in the other collieries, there would be not less than 9,382,086 tons of unmerchantable "culm" produced, to which no value is assigned. About one-tenth of this is used at the mines, while at present the remainder of it is thrown away.

—In the census year there were employed at the collieries 68,239 hands, of whom 28.7 per cent. were miners, 69.5 were laborers above ground, and 1.8 comprised the administrative force. The total wages paid were \$21,680,120. The average yearly income of each man was \$359 08, and his average monthly income \$42 33. On an average, the employees worked 70.69 per cent. of the year, while 28.60 per cent. was lost by stoppages, and only 0.72 per cent. by strikes. The last item shows that the relations between employers and employees are much more harmonious than heretofore. The increase of force employed over 1870—29.04 per cent.—consists largely of boys under sixteen years of age, at work above ground. The number of adult employees has increased but 20 per cent. The coal-lands which are reported as being worked amount to 164,852 acres, valued at \$102,614,844—

an average valuation of \$622 47 per acre. Of the total number, 13,852 acres are reported as having been worked over; the lower seams of coal, however, even in this area have not yet been touched. An additional area of 53,385 acres of coal-land is held in reserve by the companies. On the extremely conservative supposition that only 27 per cent. of the contents of the anthracite coal-field can be mined and marketed, it is estimated that the production of anthracite, after 1880, will reach 4,000,640,000 net tons before the field is exhausted. This would indicate that the production of the census year could be maintained for 146 years.

—At the International Medical Conference, now in session in London, Dr. J. S. Billings, of Washington, D. C., read a paper recently upon medical literature, with especial reference to its character and distribution. The paper opens with the following statistics: It is usual to estimate that about one-thirtieth of the world's literature belongs to medicine and allied sciences. The number of volumes is computed to be about 120,000, and about twice that number of pamphlets, and this amount is increasing at the rate of about 1,500 volumes and 2,500 pamphlets annually. Out of the 180,000 medical men in the civilized world about 11,600 are producers of or contributors to this literature. These are divided among the different countries as follows:

	Number of Physicians.	Number of Medical Writers.
United States.....	65,000	2,800
France and Colonies.....	26,000	2,600
German Empire.....	32,000	2,300
Great Britain and Colonies.....	35,000	2,000
Italy.....	10,000	600
Spain.....	5,000	300
All others.....	17,000	1,000

The number of physicians who are writers is proportionally greatest in France and least in the United States. In 1879 the total number of medical books and pamphlets published was 1,643, according to the *Index Medicus*. Of these France published more than any other country, the contributions of the United States ranking third.

—The special characteristics of the medical literature of the present day are largely due to journals and transactions of societies. These form about one-half of the current medical literature, and are by far the most widely read and studied. They amounted in 1879 to 655 volumes, containing about 20,000 original articles which were judged worthy of notice in the *Index Medicus*. Classifying the literary product of 1879 by subjects, we find the scientific or biological side of medicine represented by 167 books and 1,543 articles. In this branch Germany leads, while the United States is very low in the list. The practical side of medicine was represented by 1,200 books and 18,000 articles. Here France showed the greatest production, the United States next, and then Germany. In scientific medicine we go to Germany to school, as that country at present leads the world. It was not long ago that the scientific student of medicine found his career anything but a profitable one. This condition is, however, rapidly changing, with the increasing specialization of his profession and with the general tendency of science toward achieving practical results. So vast is the present range of medical science that we must now look for original discoveries mainly to specialists.

—The movement of the Board of Censors of the

New York County Medical Society to suppress the illegal practice of medicine under the State law of 1880, is one in which the public is generally interested. At a recent meeting held to consider the subject, Dr. F. R. Sturgis, a member of the Board, made an interesting statement explaining its action. The law provides for a registration in the County Clerk's office by every practising physician of his diploma, which shows, of course, his right to practise if he has any. The penalty for non-compliance is liability for prosecution as an illegal practitioner, and the provisions of the law have been generally complied with. The Board is invested with authority to commence prosecutions under the law, but only one conviction has, it seems, yet been obtained. The difficulty of securing evidence is the main obstacle in the way of the enforcement of the law, the patients of quacks having a disinclination to come forward as witnesses. The mere fact that a man displays a sign, or that he has an office for the treatment of patients, is not evidence upon which a conviction can be obtained. The Board of Censors will try to obtain some new legislation at the next session of the Legislature; we trust that it may be as stringent as possible, for there is probably no city in the world where medical charlatans ply their trade more openly and recklessly than in New York. The fact that diplomas are so easy to get in this country makes it doubly important that the conservative members of the profession should be supported in any effort they make to protect the public against this particularly dangerous form of rascality.

—"W. B." writes us from Boston:

"In a notice of Sibley's 'Biographical Sketches of Graduates of Harvard University,' in No. 838 (July 21, 1881) of the *Nation*, Benj. Tompson is said to be capable of good lines like the following:

"My Loyalty is still the same,
Whether I win or lose the game,
True as a Dial to the sun,
Altho' it be not shined upon."

Was not Butler, who in 'Hudibras,' Part 3, canto 2, ll. 173-176, wrote—

"For loyalty is still the same,
Whether it win or lose the game;
True as the dial to the sun,
Although it be not shined upon"—

a maledictus who said Tompson's good lines before that worthy author himself said them?"

Unquestionably. We should have said "capable of appropriating good lines like the following."

—Mr. Henry Larkin, who indexed Carlyle's works and made the maps for the 'Frederic,' contributes a long article to the current *British Quarterly Review* on "Carlyle and Mrs. Carlyle," which is entertaining in several ways. It is a reluctant offering, and Mr. Larkin has "always conscientiously shrunk from the bare possibility of such a thing" as publishing reminiscences of the intimate relations he held with the Carlyles; but when a person's shrinking is conscientious and is once overcome, it is, it seems, abandoned with singular completeness, and we have here glimpses of the Chelsea interior which an observer whose shrinking was merely instinctive would probably have withheld from us. In overcoming his shrinking, moreover, Mr. Larkin gives his true disposition the freest play, and his essay thus has, in a degree unexampled even in what has recently been written about his master, the merits of the type unalterably fixed by Boswell. He began his acquaintance with Carlyle by writing him a letter objecting

to the depreciation of Cromwell in Carlyle's work, and got a reply saying, as was certainly reasonable, "It is a great satisfaction to me to be chidden from that side of the Cromwell Controversy." Two years after he became convinced that his own letter had been presumptuous and wrote to say so, adding that "next to my sovereign Lord and master Jesus Christ it was to him that I was indebted." To this Carlyle replied, expressing thanks and satisfaction for this "loyal feeling," which "to yourself also signifies much," and advising him to "persist in that disposition, whatever hindrances occur, so long as you can." For four years more Mr. Larkin "wearily plodded on," but chancing to learn that Carlyle wanted indexing done, "I saw at once," he says, "that my opportunity had at length come, and that there was now a possibility of doing something useful while I lived." Accordingly he offered his services, which were accepted with some dubiety at first, requested and even commanded as time went on, and remunerated to a ridiculously small extent, but in proportion to Carlyle's abilities and beyond the expectations or desires of Mr. Larkin, upon whom his employer had to press checks.

—For many years he "persisted in that disposition," and the reader will find few more suggestive narratives than his account of it. It is difficult to read it without a feeling of worldly commiseration, and reflecting that this sort of thing is the logical and practical outcome of the Carlyle doctrines of reverence and hero-worship. Mr. Larkin, so far as we can see, did nothing but reduce these notions, with which he had become thoroughly imbued, to practice, with the national literalness and with an apparent consciousness that people in general would misapprehend and possibly ridicule his motives. This indeed seems to have added a fillip to the interest of his self-sacrifice. Carlyle "loyally" accepted it, and one has an uncomfortable feeling that he "sized" his admirer at once, and saw no harm but rather some possible good to the latter as the result of an intercourse which at any rate was to be very profitable to himself. Mr. Larkin became a kind of factotum at the house in Chelsea, and when he married came to live next door to be within call. He finds this last to have been a mistake, as he was a little too accessible. When the 'Frederic' indexing was doing he and his wife sat up night after night to hurry it along; Carlyle was almost abusive in his insistence on haste, and thoroughly unappreciative of the gratuitousness and amount of the labor involved; and, finally, Mr. Larkin, like the trodden worm, turned on him and wrote what must have been a plaintive but distinct protest. Then he went to call, and the subject was avoided and never afterward referred to, though he thinks it always remained a bar to perfect cordiality between them. Mrs. Carlyle, it is perfectly plain, foresaw the result of the experiment, and tried to console Larkin in advance for his inevitable disappointment, after an abortive effort to prevent it. "Once she told me 'it was mostly mad people who came running after Carlyle,' leaving me to make my own application." Mr. Larkin's thesis, so far as he may be said to have one, is that Carlyle neglected and failed to appreciate his wife, and that his pitiful lamentations in the 'Reminiscences' are expressions of a terrible remorse. He gives numerous little confidences of Mrs. Carlyle to him to this effect, which on the whole perhaps he shouldn't have done. But probably no harm will ensue; most readers will see that the relation he bore to both husband and wife

was peculiar, and not quite appreciated by him, and that each used him as a soft and grateful cushion on occasion. What Mr. Larkin fails to see, and what even Mrs. Oliphant missed, it occurred to us at the time of her essay on the same subject, is the probable fact that Carlyle and his wife understood each other better than any one else did either of them.

—Instead of choosing, as was surmised, the present Radcliffe Observer, Mr. E. J. Stone, for Astronomer Royal of England to succeed Sir George Airy, whose resignation took place on August 1, the lords of the Admiralty have just appointed Mr. W. H. M. Christie to that high and responsible position. Mr. Christie, though yet quite young, is very well known as the chief and confidential assistant to Airy since the autumn of 1870, but more popularly as the able editor of an astronomical periodical, founded by himself in 1877 and called the *Observatory*. Mr. Christie is the author of several important astronomical and physical papers, and is particularly an authority in spectroscopic matters, and has made a considerable series of observations for determining the motions of stars in the line of sight. A recent paper treats of the systematic errors of the Greenwich North Polar Distances. Early in 1880 he was elected secretary of the Royal Astronomical Society, and in February last was re-elected to the same office.

—It is proposed to start a Pāli Text Society on the model of the Early English Text Society, in order to render accessible to students the rich stores of the earliest Buddhist literature now lying unedited and practically unused in the various MSS. scattered throughout the public and university libraries of Europe. The Society looks forward to publishing, within a no very distant period, the whole of the texts of the Pāli Pitakas. Professor Fausbøll, having completed the Dhammapada, is already far advanced with his edition of the Jātaka Book, the longest of the texts of the Sutta Pitaka; and Dr. Oldenburg has the Vinaya Pitaka well in hand. The remaining texts of the Sutta and Abhidhamma Pitakas lend themselves easily to distribution among various editors. The project has been most heartily welcomed by scholars throughout Europe. It is proposed to include in the Society's series those of the more important of the earlier Jain and uncanonical Buddhist texts which may be expected to throw light on the religious movement out of which the Pitakas also arose. Analyses in English of the published texts, Introductions to them, Catalogues of MSS., Indices, Glossaries, and Notes and Queries on early Buddhist History will appear from time to time in the Society's publications. For persons dwelling in the United States the subscription to the Society will be five dollars a year or twenty-five dollars for six years, due in advance. No charge will be made for postage. To non-subscribers the price of the volumes published will be about double the price of the subscription. The work cannot proceed until a certain sum is in hand; and those who wish to join in this undertaking should therefore send their subscriptions at once to Professor Charles R. Lanman, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

—The European journals bring notices of the life and works of Professor Theodor Benfey, of Göttingen, who died on the twenty-sixth of June, at the age of seventy-two years. He celebrated his "jubilee," or fifty-years' anniversary of graduation from the University as Doctor of Philosophy, in 1878, and had the satisfaction of then receiving tokens

of recognition of his eminent services to science from every part of the civilized world; it was not suspected that his career was so near its close. He has represented Oriental, especially Sanskrit, learning at Göttingen since 1834, and has produced a remarkable series of works distinguished by immense erudition and the most indefatigable industry, along with wonderful acuteness and power of divination; but not exhibiting in the same degree soundness of judgment and practicalness. He was one who fought for his own hand, neither belonging to a school nor himself founding one, and holding himself aloof from controversy. His first notable and characteristic work was his Greek Root-Lexicon (from 1839), full of the most venturesome etymologies, of which, however, a larger part than for a time was believed have proved anticipations of science. His 'Sāma-Veda' (1848) was the first complete publication, with accents, version, vocabulary, and other apparatus, of a Vedic text—unfortunately, of much the least interesting one of its class. He produced three Sanskrit grammars, one of them in English, a chrestomathy with vocabulary, and a compendious dictionary. His edition of the 'Panchatantra' was the most important contribution to the study of folk-lore, and especially the tracing of European stories to Indian and Buddhist sources. His journal, *Orient und Occident*, of which he himself wrote a great part, was unfortunately broken off in the midst of its third volume; apart from it, his numerous occasional articles are to be found especially in the *Gelährte-Anzeigen* and Transactions of the Royal Society of Göttingen; some of them he recently collected into a couple of small volumes (noticed in our No. 817, Feb. 24, 1881). For many years past he has been known to be engaged upon a Vedic grammar; and the specimens of it which he has from time to time published in the form of monographs on special points showed it to be constructed upon an enormous scale, and unlikely ever to reach the public in full; it is to be desired and hoped that its substance will be brought out by the care of some other scholar. Of his remaining works, the most conspicuous is a 'History of the Science of Language' and of 'Oriental Philology in Germany' (1869); he also made important contributions to the study of Zend and of the cuneiform or Achaemenian Persian. He was of Jewish birth but of Christian profession; a man peculiarly and purely devoted to his work, exulting in it, filled with satisfaction at what he accomplished, and well-willing and helpful to his fellows. There remain of his generation of giants now only Pott and Stenzler.

—It would far exceed our limits to attempt a discussion of Horstmann's 'Altenglische Legenden,' chiefly of the fourteenth century (Heilbronn, 1881). We content ourselves with calling attention to the introduction. Here the editor gives, in less than forty pages, a highly satisfactory sketch of the growth of this branch of mediæval literature in general. Beginning with the *officium* and *hore* of the early church, he shows how the legends of the saints began to acquire importance as a part of the church service in the ninth century by being introduced into the *nocturns*, which were gradually transferred from midnight to morning—i.e., to *matins*. The relation of homilies to legends, and the encroachment of the latter upon the former in the services on saints' days, the formation of a *liber festivus*, or fusion of homiliarium and legendarium for the church year, and the significance of Voragine's *Legenda Aurea* as the final act in a long process of development—these and many other

points are brought out with great precision. No less valuable is Horstmann's exposition of the formation of the lives of the saints, from the calends and diptychs of the early church, through the martyrologies of Eusebius (in the version by Hieronymus), Bede (in Florus's version), Rabanus Maurus, Ado, Usuard, and their followers, to the finishing work of Voragine. The editor's wide reading has enabled him to bring together many facts hitherto scattered through inaccessible monographs and ponderous compilations. His view of the relations of the single churches to the Church in general is instructive; the services rendered by the national churches of Ireland and England are also treated with the attention that they deserve. In short, this Introduction is unquestionably the best résumé we have yet seen of a subject bristling with difficulties of all kinds.

—An important contribution to popular poetry has recently been made by Salomone-Marino in his 'Leggende popolari siciliane in poesia' (Palermo, 1880). The lyrical poetry and popular prose literature of Sicily have been fully collected and illustrated by Vigo and Pitre, but narrative poetry was so lacking that students have heretofore believed that class to be peculiar to the North of Italy. The present volume, however, and a number of narrative poems in other collections show that the inhabitants of Southern Italy are by no means destitute of the epic spirit, although the tendency of the popular muse is undoubtedly lyric. The collection in question contains sixty-one *leggende*, an appellation embracing both legends proper (historical and local legends) and historical folk-songs, the latter largely in the majority. The collector, in his interesting preface, defends the popularity of his material, even where of recent date and by living authors. In this case the version current among the people only has been accepted. The fact that the author names himself in a legend is in Sicily no proof of its non-popular character, for the ambition to connect his name with this class of poems leads the rustic poet often to attribute to himself an old and anonymous legend or one belonging to another. More important is the distinction to be made between indigenous and foreign legends, for, especially since 1860, the popular literature of the two extremes of the nation is being rapidly exchanged and diffused by means of the army. The contents of the volume are too varied to be more than hinted at here. The poems date from Count Ruggiero (who died in 1101) to the death of Victor Emmanuel and Pope Pius IX. The famous Sicilian Vespers and the political events of 1860 are not forgotten. Here and there we find a pure legend like No. xx., "La Bedda di lu Scògghiu" ("The Beauty on the Cliff"), which relates how a maiden awaited her lover seven years on a cliff, asking the passing sailors whether they had seen him. At last a skipper tells her that he has seen a cavalier, "blond and slender, on a rock, with his breast shattered," whereupon the hopeless maiden throws herself into the sea. A poem on the cholera in 1837 is interesting as showing the belief at the time that the pestilence was spread by means of poisoners (the reader will recall the *untori* of the 'Promessi Sposi'), and it was even believed that King Ferdinand himself came to Palermo disguised as a monk to see whether the poisoning was carried out on a large scale, according to his orders. When we reflect that over sixty thousand people died in Palermo alone in three months, we can imagine what must have been the mental condition of the survivors.

THE ORIGIN OF NATIONS.

The Origin of Nations. In two Parts: On Early Civilizations; On Ethnic Affinities, etc. By George Rawlinson, M.A., Camden Professor of Ancient History, Oxford, and Canon of Canterbury. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1881. 12mo, pp. 283.

As appears from the title-page, Prof. Rawlinson's 'Origin of Nations' consists of two entirely independent treatises, having in common only the purpose of vindicating the authority of the Hebrew Scriptures against the assaults of historical criticism. The first part is devoted to chronology, the second to ethnology. The discussion is conducted with much learning, and has an especial value as being probably the ablest and most complete presentation of the arguments upon this side. The aim in the first part is to show that the results of historical investigation, especially in the decipherment of the monuments, do not invalidate the Scripture chronology. The author takes up the several nations of ancient times in nine chapters (including an Introduction), and discusses with considerable fulness the claims of each to an extreme antiquity. For the sake of completeness he has carried the enquiry a good deal further than was really necessary. If this claim can be sustained at all it is in Egypt, Babylonia, and India. If the annals of these three countries cannot be proved to be irreconcilable with the Scripture chronology, it is useless to look to Phœnicia, Lydia, Etruria, and the British Isles for such antagonism. Indeed, we think any reasonable person would be satisfied to let the question be determined by Egypt, for here we have unquestionably the oldest and longest continuous historical record. Naturally Egypt is the subject of the first chapter of the enquiry; and the enquiry might very well have stopped here.

It is a pity that Prof. Rawlinson does not tell us at the outset what he means by the Scripture chronology. The only clear impression one gets is that the chronology of the Hebrews is materially shorter than the alleged chronology of the Egyptians, and that therefore reason must be shown why the Egyptian chronology may be considered incorrect. Of course, as he himself says, it is very much guesswork. We have Manetho's tables, supplemented in part by the monuments; and it is *guessed* that more or fewer of Manetho's dynasties were contemporaneous. So, according as more or less of this contemporaneity is assumed, we have a number of dates for the accession of Menes, ranging from that of Mariette and Lenormant (B.C. 5004) to Sir G. Wilkinson's (B.C. 2691). The first is manifestly incompatible with the Biblical chronology; the last is quite as incompatible with Archbishop Ussher's chronology (the Deluge, B.C. 2350). Prof. Rawlinson at the close of the chapter decides to follow the Septuagint for this event, which places the Deluge before B.C. 3000. But he does not tell us why he follows the Septuagint for this event, nor whether he follows it for this event alone or adopts it as a whole, nor whether the Septuagint carries the creation back as early in proportion as the Deluge. The argument sums itself up in this: take the latest piece of guesswork for the date of Menes and the earliest for that of the Deluge, and it is certainly possible that the ancestors of the Egyptians, setting out from the Tower of Babel at the confusion of tongues, made their way to the valley of the Nile in time to found this empire.

The fact is, the whole discussion is premature and admits of nothing but "possible." We are

willing to allow freely, with Mr. Rawlinson, that we have no clear historical evidence of the existence of any of the great empires earlier than about B.C. 2000, unless it be that of Egypt; further, that, as he remarks (p. 33), it is hard to believe that the valley of the Nile stood alone in excessive antiquity; and that the accounts of the earlier history of Egypt are fragmentary and incomplete in the extreme. For anything beyond this we must wait until the patient scholars who are at work upon this earlier period can offer us something besides guesswork—a time which Brugsch's recent discoveries make, perhaps, not so far distant as has been supposed.

The second part, in seven chapters, may be described as a commentary upon the genealogical table in the tenth chapter of Genesis. The author's object in this discussion, as stated in the preface, is to refute that modern view of Biblical inspiration which maintains that "while the writers of Scripture are to be held infallible guides in whatever relates to religion and morality, in other matters they are to be considered as simply on a par with other men, equally limited in their knowledge, equally liable to error, not a whit superior to their contemporaries or in advance of their age." The genealogical table in question appears to him "to deal a rude blow to such a theory," by proving that the Scripture account is fully substantiated by historical science. With some inconsistency, after this preface, he proceeds to deal with this genealogical table exactly as an unbeliever would do. In the first place he assumes, exactly as rationalists do, that where the Scripture account says "sons" we are to understand ethnological families. In other words, he places this table precisely on a footing with the Greek genealogy of the sons of Hellen. But what right has he, on his own principles, to give any but its obvious meaning to the plain language of the Bible? We read in so many words that "the sons of Japheth" were Gomer and Magog and Madai and Javan and Tubal and Meshech and Tiras; when he says that this means that the branches of the Japhetic race were the Kelts, Scythians, Medes, Greeks, etc., does he not deliberately use his own reason to explain away the language of Scripture?

Assuming, however, that he has a right to use this rationalistic process to establish the verbal inspiration of Scripture, let us examine some of the results at which he arrives. These results are ingenious and interesting, and in many cases conclusive; but let us see how far they can be used to support his fundamental principle, that "if in the material world God has wrought every minutest part to a finish and a perfection the highest that it is possible to conceive, *much more* is it to be believed that in the far more important treasure of his Word he has left nothing incomplete, but has given to every jot and tittle his full care, the utmost perfection of which it was capable, so that the whole is designed and is the utterance to man of Absolute Wisdom."

The seven sons of Japheth, enumerated above (Gen. x. 2), are identified by him with the following branches of the Indo-European race: Gomer is the Cimmerians, and the Cimmerians are, of course, the Kymry—that is, the Celtic race. Magog is "probably" the European Scythians. Madai is, of course, the Medes; Javan the Greeks (Ionians). Tubal and Meshech are the Tibereni and Moschi of Asia Minor; Tiras, the Thracians. Thus of the six great branches of the Indo-European race, as recognized by modern scholarship, his analysis

gives us the Iranians, the Kelts and Greco-Romans; the Indians, Slavs, and Teutons are left out, unless we assume with him (p. 177) that the Slavs may be meant by the Scythians (*Magog*), and the Teutons by the Thracians (*Tiras*)—taking as proved Grimm's generally abandoned theory that the Getæ and the Goths were the same. One would hardly say that this was a sufficiently close and positive identity with ethnological science to build an argument upon. In the next chapter Mr. Rawlinson proceeds to identify the sons of Gomer and Javan (mentioned in verses 3 and 4) with branches of the Keltic and Greek races. He then adds: "Why he has taken two only of the races and omitted the other five we cannot say. Perhaps he was not acquainted with the ramifications of the others; or perhaps he regarded them as sufficiently well known to his readers" (p. 189). Again: "The writer here informs us that there were within his knowledge three nations of Cymric and four of Greek origin." "*Within his knowledge!*" Whose? Are we not arguing upon the assumption that the statement is the direct word of God? Are we not told in the preface that we are to expect "nothing incomplete," and have we not here a very incomplete genealogy? Is not Prof. Rawlinson guilty of precisely the heresy that his book is directed against—making out the authors of the Scripture account to be "simply on a par with other men equally limited in their knowledge, equally liable to error," etc.? The argument is perfectly sound on rationalistic principles, and shows in a clear and satisfactory way how to explain the discrepancies and shortcomings of the Biblical record; but as a proof of the verbal inspiration of that record it is puerile. The identity here shown between the Scripture genealogy and the ascertained results of ethnology is so incomplete, and the portion that we have rests so largely upon sheer guesswork, that no person would take it as proving the authority of that record, unless he should start, as Mr. Rawlinson did, with the avowed purpose of proving that record inspired.

Our aim has been merely to show the insufficiency of the particular argument by which Mr. Rawlinson would establish his particular theory of inspiration. It may be remarked that M. Lenormant—whose chronology is furthest removed from Archbishop Ussher's—is a devout Catholic, as uncompromising a believer in the Christian revelation as Mr. Rawlinson himself. But he does not believe that the truth of Christianity depends upon the arithmetic of the book of Genesis.

'RUSSES ET ALLEMANDS.'

Russes et Allemands. Par Victor Tissot. Paris: E. Dentu; New York: F. W. Christern. 1881.

VICTOR TISSOT writes so concisely and clearly on the important subjects of which he treats, that we do not wonder that this book in less than a month from the date of its publication attained a fourth edition. The French public, always eager for information when it is to be obtained at no great cost of time or labor, would naturally feel grateful to a writer who gives them the pith of ponderous German works in a few amusing and well-written pages, and would fly to this volume for light on Russian affairs, which through the assassination of the Czar have somewhat thrust themselves on their notice. Nihilism and secret societies have become the favorite theme for essay and romance, yet of Nihilism proper little was known in France excepting what is to be learned from Turgeneff's novels,

or from the incoherent utterances of Rochefort's followers. The "Fathers of Nihilism," the first essay in this book, contains an account of the growth and development of this sect from the teachings of Alexander Herzen, Michael Bakunin, and Tchernyshevski, with a history of their lives and work. It was at the house of one Stankievitch in Moscow, a follower of the doctrines of Hegel, that Herzen, after imprisonment and exile, used to meet with the men who made such a mark in Russian literature and science. Bielinski, the radical critic, Granovski, the historian, and Bakunin, together with Herzen, formed the extreme left of this circle. Aksakoff and Khomiakoff, the founders of the Slavophil party, also belonged to the number. They believed that in the doctrine of Hegel they had found a confirmation of their own views on government and society. "We spent whole nights," says Herzen, "in discussing every paragraph of the three volumes of Hegel's 'Logic' and the two volumes of his 'Æsthetics.'"

Herzen began his revolutionary career by publishing two pamphlets, "Dilettantism in Science" and "Letters on the Study of Nature." After a short term of Government employment, during which he wrote stories and novels, he gave himself up to his innovative ideas, in which he had absolute faith. He was, on account of continual conflict with the men then in power, consigned to imprisonment at Novgorod; he gave up his position as councillor, and after the death of his father, a man of fortune, he left Russia for ever. The south of Europe was then in a state of ferment. At Rome Herzen formed his programme in a pamphlet entitled "Before the Storm," in which the following ideas are prominent:

"The future belongs to socialism, which will develop itself in all its phases to its extreme consequences, to absurdity itself. Then again from the Titan-like bosom of revolutionary minority the cry of negation will be put forth; and a mortal struggle will then ensue in which socialism will take the place of actual conservatism, and will be in its turn beaten by a power to us unknown. The eternal game of life, cruel as death, inevitable as birth, constitutes the ebb and flow of history, the *perpetuum mobile* of life."

This principle of universal negation is the very basis of Nihilist doctrine. In 1848 Herzen was disappointed with the turn of events, which led to a bourgeois form of republic rather than to a socialistic solution. He continued denouncing it—"Death to the old world! Life to chaos, destruction! Room for the Future! We are not called to reap the fruits of the past, but to be its executioners, to persecute it, to judge it, to recognize it under all its disguises, and to immolate it to the future!" Sixteen years later, in 1864, Herzen develops the same ideas in a pamphlet published in England under the title of "The Old World and Russia," in which, with sovereign contempt for Western civilization, he declares it to have played out its past and reached the very limits of remoulding. "Our revolutionary ideas are quite incompatible with the existing state of things." The Nihilist cares not what takes the place of what he destroys: "When spring comes again over the whited sepulchres of bygone generations, a young, fresh life will manifest itself!"

It was in 1857 that Herzen began to publish his paper, the *Bell* (*Kolokol*). He was then living in London. Notwithstanding the most rigorous prohibitions of the Russian Government, the *Kolokol*, sounding the death-knell of despotism, used to find its way into all hands—even to the very table of

the Czar. Herzen's correspondents kept him informed of the most secret mysteries of the state; he knew what was passing at court, in the senate, in the police department, in the state prisons—everywhere. He acquired an immense influence over the educated classes, and the young students were completely carried away by his philosophic and social theories. Herzen found himself strong enough towards the end of the reign of Nicholas to work for an insurrectionary socialistic movement in Russia, aided by Kelsieff and Bakunin, who were his intermediaries with the persecuted sects. His ideas were thus diffused among the people. In 1861 a monk, Father Pafnuty, came to London to confer with Herzen, but, shocked by the irreverence and blasphemy of Bakunin's conversation, he returned to Moscow declaring that believers in the true faith could hold no commerce with the "libertines in London." The emancipation of the serfs stopped this movement. Kelsieff sent in his submission to the Government, and Herzen, who seems to have drawn back when it came to putting his own theories into practice, became an opportunist, leaving Bakunin alone in the field to pursue his dream of annihilation, which has become the programme of militant Nihilism.

Michael Bakunin, born in 1814, was destined, as most noble Russians are, to a military career. After receiving what was then considered an excellent education, and having distinguished himself at his examination before leaving college, he had a right to a place in the Guards. This was, however, refused him, and he was sent to serve in the miserable villages of White Russia at the age of twenty-one. No wonder he got disheartened at so dull a life; he soon sent in his resignation and returned to Moscow, which was, under the reign of Nicholas, the rendezvous of all the malcontents. Bakunin joined at once the learned clique which met at Stankievitch's, and when his friends were dispersed went to Berlin, where he studied at the University. In 1843 he went to Paris, and there fell in with several socialist chiefs, being especially attracted by Proudhon. Espousing the cause of the Poles, he had the police at his heels, and his friends advised him to go to Switzerland, a safer soil for conspirators. He returned to Paris five years afterwards, and at a banquet given on November 29, 1847, to commemorate the anniversary of the Polish revolution of 1830, he made a speech which was translated at once into several languages. In this Bakunin prophesied that the future would efface the differences existing between the two great Slav races, and that they would be united in a federative republic. The Russian ambassador in Paris was ordered to require Bakunin's expulsion from France, and M. Guizot at once complied with this demand. Bakunin remained in Belgium till the revolution of February, which he and all his friends hoped to turn into a general reorganization of Europe. When convinced of disappointment on this score, he took part in June, 1848, in the Congress at Prague, the members of which, consisting of Czechs, Slovaks, Serbs, Poles, etc., dreamed of a federative Slav empire. This scheme failed ignominiously, and Bakunin took refuge among the Berlin radicals. In Dresden he became in May, 1849, one of the leaders of the local insurrection, and himself ordered the throwing of torches of burning pitch on the heads of the Saxon soldiers. He was taken prisoner at Chemnitz, and afterwards condemned to death, but the sentence was commuted to perpetual imprisonment. The Czar Nicholas demanded his rendition as a Russian subject, and

he was eventually placed in the fortress of Peter and Paul at St. Petersburg.

During the Crimean war Bakunin was transferred to Schlüsselburg, and was amnestied at the accession of Alexander II. and sent to Eastern Siberia, whence he escaped through the indulgence of his relative the governor-general, Count Muravieff-Amurski, who gave him a passport to Nikolayevsk; there Bakunin took passage on an American vessel, and thus, through Japan, San Francisco, and New York, got to London in 1861, where he found Herzen and Ogareff. He determined henceforth to devote his energies to the Slav cause, and redoubled his vehemence against czarism. From the moment Bakunin became a contributor to the *Kolokol*, that journal no longer demanded reform only, but absolute destruction of all existing institutions. He even defended the incendiaries of May, 1862, in St. Petersburg, and incited his adepts to the most bloodthirsty revenge. The Russian liberal party broke entirely with this journal, once its own organ, when, in 1863, it took the part of the Polish insurgents.

The *Kolokol* was then transferred to Geneva, and Bakunin again returned to his former ideas of a cosmopolitan revolution. In 1867 we hear of him as a permanent member of the Peace League, but his views were not those of his associates, and he soon parted company with them and founded a new association, "The International Alliance of the Socialistic Democracy." In a long discourse at the Congress of Bern, Bakunin demanded the abolition of the state; the abolition of marriage as a political, religious, judicial, and civil institution; absolute equality of individuals, and the substitution of science for faith, and human justice for divine justice—in a word, collectivism to replace communism. "I abhor communism, which is the negation of all liberty. I am an enemy to communism, concentrating all the strength of society in that of the state, and putting all property into the hands of the state; I desire the organization of society and property to come from below, not from above; I am a *collectivist* and not a socialist." Hundreds of people became his followers. How many young men and women have devoted themselves to teaching his doctrines to the lower orders, living a life of the greatest privation, and giving up position, friends, and relations for the sake of promulgating these doctrines! How many have been sent to Siberia and their places taken by others! Bakunin sought to justify political assassination in two pamphlets, "Revolutionary Catechism" and "A Message to Russian Officers." When the Prussians were in possession of Paris Bakunin turned his attention to helping France. During the Paris Commune he went to Lyons to try and put his doctrine into practice there, under the auspices of Cluseret and kindred spirits; but when the National Guard took possession of the Hôtel de Ville again, Bakunin returned to Switzerland, where he died at Bern in 1872.

We now turn to Tchernyshevski, the founder of scientific, as Herzen was of doctrinary, and Bakunin of militant, Nihilism. Tchernyshevski, in his "Letters without Addresses," showed how the people were continually called on to fight and to shed their blood for no advantage of their own. They were forced to deliver Moscow from the Poles, to conquer Little Russia, and to turn out the Swedes and Turks. In his commentaries to his translation of Stuart Mill's works he enlarges on the division of labor and the industrial question, discusses Adam Smith's doctrine with regard to social revo-

lution, and refutes the theory of "political economy of the middle classes" to substitute the theory of political economy of the people. Tchernyshevski soon rallied around him the younger generation, who found in his teachings echoes of the pessimist and materialistic doctrines of Schopenhauer, Feuerbach, and Büchner, which had long taken the place of Hegel's philosophy. He wrote a novel while in prison, entitled "What is to be done?" which created the new type of woman fitted to be the companion of the new type of man. This book became the gospel of young girls, who formed themselves on its heroine. Tchernyshevski represents woman as the victim of society, and incites her to deliver herself from its bonds, asking no help from any one, earning her own bread in order to become free. "The *Vera* of this novel became the model of the short-haired, student looking girls with spectacles and masculine habits." He completely altered family ties for the younger generation, even changing the relation between husband and wife. Tchernyshevski's conjugal system is somewhat akin to Fourier's and Owen's, though more formalistic and conventional; for many marriages are quite platonic. In this system the woman marries the cause of humanity, and not the individual.

In 1864, after two years of the strictest imprisonment, Tchernyshevski left the fortress of Peter and Paul, to be put in the pillory on a public square at St. Petersburg. The executioner read over him a sentence of fourteen years' penal servitude in the mines for inciting revolt, and after that time perpetual exile. A sword was then broken over his head. Thenceforth dead to the world, he lives as a martyr in the hearts of the people, and from his prison in Siberia Tchernyshevski has done more against Russian autocracy than Herzen and Bakunin at large in Europe.

Tissot, after giving an interesting account of the growth of Nihilism, continues to show how it no longer follows the old programme of carrying on a war against society, but has become a positive *rendetta* of the most ferocious and sanguinary kind, whose motto is "An eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth." The Nihilists, according to him, have no strong organization, and are continually given up to the police by the peasants they try to convert. He thinks they cannot be under the direction of any central committee, but form independent groups of four or five members bound together by similarity of aim and intention; the richest furnishes the means for the poorer, and if the group is not strong enough to strike the contemplated blow it seeks auxiliaries. People of high rank are supposed to belong to the Nihilists, but what constitutes their real strength is their boldness and heroic contempt for prison, exile, or death. Another curious fact to which Tissot calls our attention is that it is not the poorest sections of Russia, where the inhabitants are in the greatest want, that breed the largest number of political malcontents. The majority of the Nihilist men come from Little Russia, the province richest in corn, in green fields, in well-fed cattle, in vines, where life is easiest, the blood warmer, and passions more easily kindled; while, on the contrary, only the Russian women of North Russia are found in these ranks. They are less ideal in temperament and more positive than the daughters of the steppes. The liberal party demands, as in 1879, a constitution; but the terrorists, those who assassinate, will not rest contented with this even, repeating Herzen's saying: "A constitution is merely a

compact between master and slave." Social transformation by means of the demolition of everything existing will alone satisfy them. What will become of Russia in this crisis is more than our author tries to foresee.

The remaining chapters of this book are on the education of women in Russia, the universities, the Russian army, and the relations between Germany and Russia; also on the important part Germans have played in Russia, and their present influence there. Tissot's arguments go far to convince us that they are generally detested by every true-born Russian, though no doubt his own feelings have some weight on this question. The last essay is on the state of socialism in Germany. In this Tissot gives the history of the life and work of Ferdinand Lassalle. Those who read this most interesting volume will eagerly look forward to Tissot's promised 'Indiscretions de voyage' on Russia and the Russians.

GÜNTHER'S ICHTHYOLOGY.

An Introduction to the Study of Fishes. By Albert C. L. G. Günther, M.A., M.D., Ph.D., F.R.S., Keeper of the Zoological Department in the British Museum, Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black. 1880. 8vo, xvi.-720 pp.

Ichthyology. (Article signed "A. C. G." in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' ninth edition, vol. xii.) Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black. 1881. Pp. 630-695.

DR. GÜNTHER has in times past done good service to ichthyology, and has given us the only tolerably complete "Species Piscium," in the form of a 'Catalogue of the Fishes in the British Museum.' This work was issued in eight volumes from 1859 to 1870, and reflected moderately well the state of science at that period. The author, however, has been unable to any considerable degree to discard what he has once accepted and to bring himself into relations with the science of the present, but adheres tenaciously to beliefs formed in a much less advanced state of knowledge, and in spite of conclusive evidence against their tenability. This mental attitude is prominently manifested in his new work as well as in his article in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' The 'Introduction' is really a complement to the 'Catalogue' divided into two parts, viz., a treatise on the principles of ichthyology, and a nomenclature of the genera, with definitions of all the including groups admitted by him. The curiosity with which the experienced ichthyologist will open the book must be soon subordinated to astonishment as he proceeds in the examination of it, for it is scarcely possible that any one should be prepared for the numerous errors of one kind or another that are constantly cropping out on almost every page. It is difficult to believe that one who has written so much on fishes as the author has should make so many lapses.

At the commencement of the chapter on the "History and Literature" it is alleged that "Aristotle had a perfect knowledge of the general structure of fishes," and in illustration of the thesis Aristotle is quoted as stating, among other things, that "all scaly fishes are oviparous, but the cartilaginous fishes (with the exception of the sea-devil [*Lophius piscatorius*] which Aristotle places along with them) are viviparous," and that "kidneys and urinary bladder are absent" (p. 2). Nevertheless, we find confronted with these statements contrary ones, to the effect that there are

certain "scaly fishes" which are "viviparous" (p. 159), and that of the cartilaginous "the majority of the Rays are oviparous" (p. 336)—which by the way, however, is also incorrect. Passing over the rest of the first chapter, which is defective in many ways, we come to the second, upon which we shall chiefly dwell. It is devoted to a "Topographical Description of the External Parts of Fishes," and in almost every paragraph there is some ambiguous or misleading statement. A notice of some of the graver errors will form the best means of conveying an idea of the work.

"In the body of a fish four parts are distinguished: the head, trunk, tail, and the fins; the boundary between the first and second being generally indicated by the gill-opening, and that between the second and third by the vent" (p. 35). Now, the boundary between the head and trunk may, in a certain sense, be said to be generally indicated by the gill-opening, but when we consider that all the representatives of the sub-classes of Leptocardians, Cyclostomes, and Selachians fail to have the parts so distinguished, and that even among the Teleosts the Pediculates and others form exceptions, the statement is too broad even with the word "generally" introduced. The statement that the boundary between the trunk and tail is marked by the vent is unqualified; nevertheless there are a number of forms which furnish exceptions—e. g., the North American Aphredoderids and Amblyopsids (the latter comprising the celebrated blind fishes) and the South American electrical eel, and all the family of Sternopygids. In the last two the vent is just behind the chin.

"In fishes which are endowed with the power of steady and more or less rapid motion, a deviation from that form of body which we observe in the perch, carp, and mackerel is never excessive. The body forms a simple, equally-formed wedge, compressed or slightly rounded, well fitted for cleaving the water" (p. 35). The form most eminently adapted for rapid progress in the water is exemplified in tunnies and bonitos; their body is fusiform, little compressed, and boldly rounded. The form of the carp is not well adapted for rapid progress, the fish being rather a slow swimmer, and is also not what is generally known as wedge-shaped.

"The mouth is formed by the intermaxillary and maxillary bones, or by the intermaxillary only in the upper jaw, and by the mandibular bone in the lower" (p. 37). This statement is a remarkable one to emanate from a professional ichthyologist and anatomist. Every tyro knows that the Leptocardians and the Lampreys are entirely destitute of anything like true jaws, and all the Selachians lack developed "intermaxillary and maxillary bones," and have the upper border of the mouth constituted by the palatine bones (p. 69).

"The jaws of some fishes are modified into a special weapon of attack (sword-fish, saw-fish); in fact, throughout the whole class of fishes the jaws are the only organs specialised for the purpose of attacking; weapons on other parts of the body are purely defensive" (p. 37). This paragraph caps the climax of false statements and unscientific generalizations. The implication that the "weapons" of a sword-fish and a saw-fish are both modifications of the jaws is tantamount to the assertion that the jaws and nose are the same thing. Dr. Günther himself has known this (see pp. 336, 337 of the 'Introduction'). There is possibility for difference of opinion as to what are "organs specialised for the purpose of attacking," but there is none that the saw of the saw-fish is a prolongation of the snout,

and has nothing to do with the jaws. If it is conceded that any part or "organ" which is efficient for the capture of prey in active pursuit, or for active assault on another animal, is *pro tanto* specialized, there are several parts besides the jaws which are subservient to those ends. None of the sub-classes of Leptocardians or Cyclostomes having jaws, and yet all preying, the parts concerned therein are organs for attacking. (1) In the Leptocardians the fringed margins of the mouth are concerned. (2) In the Cyclostomes the suctorial and denticulous oral disc and the tongue-like organ are the agents. (3) In the sharks the palatines bear the formidable armature. (4) In the saw-fishes of the shark order (*Pristiophorus*), as well as of the Ray order (*Pristis*), the saw, admitted by Dr. Günther to be a special weapon of attack, is not formed at all by the jaws, but by the rostral cartilage, and thus we have an exception to the generalization specified in the same line in which it is formulated. (5) Dr. Günther himself, in his 'Introduction' (p. 322), informs us, under *Alopias*, that "when feeding it uses the long tail in splashing the surface of the water, while it swims in gradually decreasing circles round a shoal of fishes, which are thus kept crowded together, falling an easy prey to their enemy." And thus, even if we discredit the use by *Alopias* of its tail against the whale, etc., we must consider it as to some extent a special weapon of attack. (6) The Sting-Rays (Trygonids) scarcely confine the use of their spines to defence, and these are at least offensive-defensive. (7) The Devil-fishes (Cephalopterids) are said to use the cephalic fins for seizing and grasping (see Elliott's 'Carolina Sports,' p. 58). (8) The Sticklebacks are well known to use the dorsal spines as weapons of attack, and to swim under and rip the belly of their antagonists. (9) The Surgeons, or *Acanthuri*, are credited with using their lancet-bearing tails by actively slashing therewith their antagonists, and it is difficult to surmise what would be the function of their characteristic armature save as weapons of offence as well as defence. (10) The Weevers (*Trachini*) use their opercular spines at least for offensive-defensive purposes, and Col. Montagu called them "offensive weapons." It therefore follows that, so far from the jaws "being the only organs specialised for the purpose of attacking," modifications thereof exist in (a) the mouth as a whole; (b) a peculiar tongue-like organ; (c) palatine bones; (d) snout; (e) cephalic fins; (f) supracaudal spines; (g) dorsal spines; (h) lateral caudal spines; and (i) opercular spines.

"In Dipnoi and other Ganoids, one [nostril] at least is within the labial boundary of the mouth" (p. 38). One unfamiliar with ichthyology would infer from this paragraph that one or more of several dilemmas existed, viz.: That some "Dipnoi and other ganoids" might have more than one nostril "within the labial boundary of the mouth"; that other existing ganoids had "one at least" or that the characteristic was of too little importance to diagnose. It is necessary, therefore, to be specific. Dr. Günther at one time contended that in the Dipnoi both nostrils were intra-oral, and even in the 'Introduction' (p. 355) asserts that they are "more or less within the mouth." It is quite safe to say that never has a fish been found in which there were (two pairs of) nostrils within the mouth, and the existence of both nostrils within the mouth would be an incredible anomaly. No other existing Ganoid has even one nostril "within the labial boundary of the mouth." The development of the

nostrils in the Dipnoi is one of the most weighty and suggestive characteristics of the group, and one by which they contrast with all other living fishes.

"The gill-opening is a foramen, or a slit, behind or below the head" (p. 38). This statement is absolute, although we have a number of exceptions—notably all Pediculates—and, as the author himself afterwards admits (p. 39), the genus *Myxine*. These, of course, have the gill-openings behind the head (not in front), but not immediately behind, as is evidently meant.

"The margin of the gill-cover is provided with a cutaneous fringe in order to more effectually close the gill-opening; and this fringe is supported by one or several or many bony-rays, the *branchiostegals*" (p. 38). The statement so absolutely made is not true as to any of the representatives of the sub-classes Leptocardians, Cyclostomes, or Selachians, nor, among living typical fishes, of the Polypteroids and Dipnoans. The homologues may indeed exist, but not as functional "bony branchiostegal rays."

The trunk "gradually passes in all fishes into the tail" (p. 39). To this there are many exceptions, as in most rays, and especially in the representatives of the families Trygonids, in which the tail is very attenuated, whip-like, and abruptly differentiated from the trunk.

"The vent may be either close to the extremity of the tail or to the foremost part of the trunk" (p. 39). From this statement we should scarcely be prepared to learn that the vent may also be situated below the head and as far forward as the chin, behind which it is found in the Gymnotids and Sternopygids.

The pectoral fins "are always inserted immediately behind the gill-opening" (p. 42). The pectoral fins are inserted below the gill openings in many Sharks, and in all the Rays they extend far forward beyond them. Among the true fishes, in the Pediculates their bases are in advance of the gill-openings, which are in their axils.

"In some Gobioids (*Periophthalmus*), Trigloids, Scorpaenoids, and Pediculati, the pectoral fins are perfect organs of walking" (p. 45). It is certainly by the utmost stretch of language that the pectoral fins in any of the Trigloids or Scorpaenoids can be said to be organs of walking. In fact, they cannot, in any logical sense of the word, be said to have that function at all.

"Scales of fishes are very different from those of reptiles, the latter being merely folds of the cutis, whilst the scales of fishes are distinct, horny elements, developed in grooves or pockets of the skin, like hairs, nails, or feathers" (p. 46). There are no such differences and relationships.

"All scales are continually growing and wasting away on the surface, and it seems that some fish at least—for instance Salmonoids—'shed' them periodically" (p. 50). This conveys the most misleading and erroneous ideas as to the genesis, development, and mode of growth of scales.

The contradictions of the generalizations just indicated are in almost all instances furnished by the same work. Unquestionably Dr. Günther has known better than might be inferred from the above enumeration of errors. It will certainly appear probable that if he has failed grievously in the treatment of a branch of his subject of which the data are most readily attainable, which is most within the general purview, and which has been the special object of his study, the chances are that he has failed at least equally in his consideration of the more recondite and less known

branches. This anticipation will be found to be fully realized. Every chapter, every section, will be found to be impregnated with errors. The mental idiosyncrasies already indicated may crop out in the most unexpected places, and there is no telling where fallacy of some kind or other may not lurk concealed. But the most apparent and radical defects are the disproportion and incongruity manifested in the systematic portion of the work. The author seems, indeed, to be destitute, to an unusual degree, of a sense of proportion and of taxonomic tact. To enter on a consideration of such questions would, however, transcend the limits of a review. Suffice it to state that he is not in accord with the best systematic zoologists and original investigators.

Never has a score of years been so fruitful in researches and results as the period between the inception of Dr. Günther's 'Catalogue' and the present. In that interval Darwin has given to the world his immortal work and revolutionized the methods and objects of biological investigation, while laborers almost innumerable have elucidated the various branches of ichthyology—the anatomy, embryology, the past history, the systematic relations, the species, the geographical distribution of forms, the faunas of the world. All these have been in vain for Dr. Günther. One of the principal discoveries—that of *Ceratodus*—has been recognized by him simply to become a stumbling-block and involve him in one of the most astonishing mazes of errors of modern times. Unquestionably, the most prominent characteristic of the present time is the acceptance of evolution and its ramification into all the details of biological investigation and classification. But in the 'Introduction to the Study of Fishes' no allusion has been made to this principle, and the author's treatment of his subject indicates that it has been practically ignored. There is, however, no group of animals to which its application is more fruitful in suggestive and profitable results than the branchiferous vertebrates. Still scattered in the waters of the globe live here and there as solitary survivors representatives of types, once abounding in species, that enable us to trace the lineage of our branch from the humblest beginnings to the specialized Acanthopterygian and grotesque Plectognath and Lophobranchiate fishes in one offshoot, and to man in another. It is strange that evidence so striking as that furnished by the forms in question should have been so entirely overlooked by Dr. Günther. The failure to appreciate the facts doubtless results from the method pursued. A certain type has been assumed as "highest" on account of vague psychological conceptions, and with this as an initial form others are successively taken up, till the author has lost his bearings and recklessly dealt with the remainder. Had he been compelled to begin his series with the generalized, and then proceed to the more and more specialized, types the faults that now pervade his work would doubtless have been fewer.

Poetry of Byron. Chosen and arranged by Matthew Arnold. New York: Macmillan.

THE preface to this newest addition to the Golden Treasury Series is an essay on Byron by the editor (published some months ago in *Macmillan's Magazine*), including a justification of his attempt "to separate from the mass of poetry which Byron poured forth all this higher portion, so superior to the mass, and still so considerable in quantity, and to present it in one body by itself." The attempt

seems measurably successful; it is certainly felicitously executed, though every one will probably, as we do, miss something or other not necessarily excluded by the scheme of selection. If any appreciable number of readers of the present generation, whose misjudgment of Byron is one of the strangest mixtures of literary ignorance and affectation, are led to read him by the present selection, from which the dross of his product is excluded, it is not to be doubted that it was worth making. At the same time we can hardly go along with Mr. Arnold in thinking Byron lends himself as happily to this treatment as Wordsworth, the same editor's volume of selections from whose works is an absolute success. Not, however, because, as Mr. Swinburne maintains, Byron "can only be judged and appreciated in the mass." Mr. Arnold seems to us to answer this objection sufficiently. But whereas very little more of Wordsworth's than is contained in Mr. Arnold's volume is worth much as poetry, a great deal that is here passed by is interesting and valuable, though it may be superfluous to a correct appreciation of Byron. In other words, the Wordsworth volume is a satisfactory substitute for Wordsworth's complete works, the Byron volume is by no means a satisfactory substitute for Byron's. "The Giaour" is undoubtedly a "string of passages," as Byron called it, but they are all of interest and value; "The Excursion," on the other hand, may have all the philosophic unity its author claimed for it, but by no means all of it is worth reading and owning. Neither does Byron's bad work obscure his good, as Wordsworth's does, it should be added.

Therefore it is for the missionary service it is likely to perform that this book is mainly important. In the same way, though to a greater degree, we think it may be affirmed, the essay which prefaces it will be found of importance. The point of view is this: "Surely the critic who does most for his author is the critic who gains readers for his author himself, not for any lucubrations on his author." Admirers of Mr. Arnold's gift of critical definition will possibly regret that he has given us so few of his own lucubrations in this essay. He borrows his statement of Byron's excellence from Mr. Swinburne, and he uses very happily the remarks upon his subject of Goethe, M. Taine, M. Scherer, Professor Nichol, and others, in order to present his view of the true portrait of the man and the poet. This view was long ago presented in brief in a few sentences of his essay on Heine, and the original "lucubrations" here are little more than an elaboration—though a powerful and telling one—of his old remarks that Byron "inevitably shattered himself to pieces against the huge, black, cloud-topped, interminable precipice of British Philistinism"; that he was "the greatest natural force, the greatest elementary power, which has appeared in our literature since Shakspeare"; but that, "except for his genius, he was an ordinary nineteenth-century English gentleman, with little culture and with no ideas." The effect of the essay is, however, to our mind, enhanced by the way in which it is written, and it will not only gain more readers for Byron than an elaborate piece of special pleading and analytical examination would do, but the persuasiveness and verisimilitude of its conclusions are increased. They are, at any rate, we should say, nearly unimpeachable.

The Young Folks' Astronomy. By John D. Champlin, Jr. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

IT is always a difficult matter to put one's self in

the child's place—to whom everything on the earth is new—and say what his thoughts are of the newer things he is told about in the sky, when he is beginning to study astronomy. The ideal textbook for the child's instruction would be made in some such way as this: Let the author take ten lads—separately, if possible—and put them through a course with the aid of a text-book like the one before us, carefully observing the impressions made upon their young minds by the various passages of the book, and particularly noting the sections which their frank questionings will show to be obscure or imperfectly treated. The book is then amended and afterward subjected to a similar experiment—that is, the whole method would be an approximative system of text-book building, the true scientific process. All this, of course, points directly to the fact that practical teachers would be the best able to make new text-books, unless their special knowledge were too restricted from coming at second hand. Unfortunately, this latter is too often the case, and there are evidences of it in 'The Young Folks' Astronomy.' To say that the "attraction of gravitation was first found out by Sir Isaac Newton"—a common blunder—is a good deal like saying that Benjamin Franklin discovered lightning. It is well enough, perhaps, as a general statement (though in effect a popular error), to say that the earth rotates on its axis once in twenty-four hours; but when the statement is made for itself alone, the more exact time—twenty-three hours and fifty-six minutes—should be given, unless it be expressly noted that the time is sidereal. We would not have spoken of the "edge of the earth" (in treating of twilight), of a "strong telescope," instead of a powerful one, of the "causes" (presumably meaning laws) of the movements, etc. No one read in recent astronomy would speak of transits of Mercury and Venus as giving the best means of calculating the sun's distance—if, indeed, Mercury would ever give any approach to the true value; and astronomers have pretty much given over Venus for anything accurate.

The typographical errors are few for even a small work of this sort. On page 146 reference is made to "satellites of the planets shown by dots near them," but neither satellites nor planets appear in the picture indicated; page 157, Mars, "a little less than half" should be "a little more than half"; page 186, the "distance of the nearest of them [fixed stars] is more than five hundred thousand times the distance of our sun from the earth" was probably intended for "two hundred thousand," etc. But the little book is full of good points, its typography is excellent, the illustrations are generally well chosen, and the fact that a fair share of them is taken from Newcomb and Holden's 'Astronomy' is a sufficient guarantee of their value. The book would be much improved by the addition of two or three easy lessons about telescopes, the velocity of light, the simpler methods of finding the sun's distance, etc.

The Sailor's Handy Book. By E. F. Qualtrough. U.S.N. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE matter of this manual is well arranged and carefully selected, being in great part a reprint of Bedford. It contains more useful information for the general nautical reader than any of its size heretofore published, and many of its sections are valuable to all seafaring men. By yachtsmen and captains of coasting vessels in particular it will be prized as a book of reference, but, until our naval service is more Anglicized than at present, naval

officers will find it more curious than helpful. The author's treatment of disinfectants, management of boats, and cutting and fitting rigging is not up to the standard of the rest of the work, and his terms, although professional in an English sense, are, in many cases, strange to our officers and seamen. As a whole, the book is a welcome addition to the nautical library.

A Brief History of Ancient Peoples; with an account of their Monuments, Literature, and Manners. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1881. 12mo, pp. 312-xvi.

BARNES'S series of school histories is, for the limited ground that it covers (only the United States, France, and ancient nations), perhaps the best there is; and it is no doubt all the better for the slowness with which the successive volumes make their appearance, arguing a corresponding thoroughness of preparation. The author has a genuine power of narration and of selection, so that the books are at once readable and accurate, and contain, on the whole, what is best worth knowing. The field of ancient history is not so well

adapted to compendious treatment as that of modern times, because it is made up of the separate histories of several distinct nations, to which, when told separately, it is hard to give reality or picturesqueness of effect by reason of the necessary brevity; while, on the other hand, it is difficult to weave them into one continuous narrative. Thus the volume before us contains nine histories instead of one. It would be impossible entirely to obviate this disadvantage; especially the histories of India and China, for example, do not touch those of Greece and Rome at any point, and must be treated independently. We think, however, that if the author had fully digested Mr. Freeman's great theme of the unity of history he would have found it possible to present in one consecutive view a history of that civilization which found its seat in Greece and Rome, with just its necessary connections in Egypt, Palestine, and other Oriental nations. That is all the ancient history that our school-children want—rather a view of ancient times than of the several ancient peoples.

The author has made as good a book as the method permitted, and it is especially noteworthy

for the prominence given to the history of civilization proper. We find a few surprising misprints. In the table of contents, *Medea* for *Media*; p. 16, *Edipus* for *Edipus*; p. 133, *Pausanius* several times for *Pausanias* (which occurs once).

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Amenities of Home. New York: D. Appleton & Co.
Aunt Mary's New England Cook-Book. Boston: Lockwood, Brooks & Co. 60 cents.
Cooke, Prof. J. P. Scientific Culture. New York: D. Appleton & Co.
Craik, Georgiana M. Sydney: a Tale. New York: Harper & Bros. 15 cents.
Dewey, Miss J. Helps to Devout Living. 3d ed. Boston: Lockwood, Brooks & Co. \$1.25.
Dictionary of Education and Instruction. New York: E. Steiger & Co. \$1.50.
My Sister Kitty: a Tale. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
New York Illustrated. New York: D. Appleton & Co.
Paul Hart: a Tale. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.
Sardou, A. The French Language Self-Taught. New York: D. Appleton & Co.
Scarborough, Prof. W. S. First Lessons in Greek. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. \$1.25.
Silliman, A. E. Gallop among American Scenery. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. \$2.50.
Spielhagen, F. The Skeleton in the House. New York: George W. Harlan. 25 cents.

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The Young Folks' Astronomy.

By J. D. Champlin, Jr. 16mo, illustrated, 60 cents.

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